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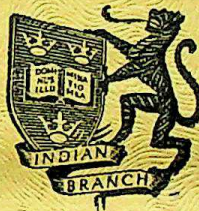
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TEACHING



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A QUARTERLY TECHNICAL JOURNAL
FOR TEACHERS



SEPTEMBER 1963

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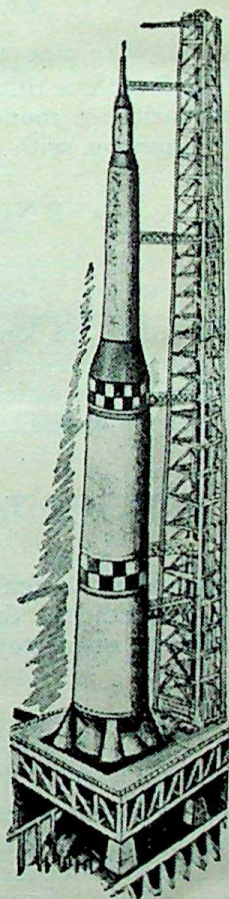
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TEACHING

A QUARTERLY TECHNICAL JOURNAL FOR TEACHERS

Editor: MARGARET BENJAMIN

VOL. XXXVI

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No. 1

Editorial

THE DECEMBER issue of TEACHING will be a special one on school organization and administration. Some suggestions for articles are given below:

School organization is closely connected with several factors. For instance: How far does the environment of a school affect organization? This leads to the question of the relationship between the quality of control and the complexity of organization. It is only under a democratic and delegative type of control that the principal can be relieved of strain. A democratic administration does not imply absence of leadership—rather it provides for more creative leadership which stimulates initiative and resourcefulness in the staff and inspires the pupils.

Education is a co-operative undertaking. It involves all those who are concerned with the training of the young. Therefore it is not the exclusive function of the school. One of the many problems our contributors may tackle is: How the principal can make use of community resources by associating parents with school administration. It is important to establish a healthy, working relationship between the school and the community.

Problems in the Teaching of English

No SUBJECT is teachable in a vacuum. Even the most abstract subjects, mathematics and music, are increasingly related to the environment in which they are likely to be practised. But for all language-teaching, the basis of analysis and reconstruction is a study of the climate in which a language is heard, taught and learnt. For unless a language is constantly heard as it should be spoken, both teacher and pupil are handicapped.

Scope of Study

Such a clinical examination is necessary in studying the problems of teaching English at the secondary level in India today. First, one starts with certain restricting conditions to reach conclusions of practical value. In the rural areas, English of a kind is taught, though it is often unrecognizable as English. But by starting where English is worst, we shall not reach even a part-solution of the problem. Let us, therefore, confine ourselves in this analysis to the urban areas of India, and particularly to the cities of Delhi, Madras, Bombay and Calcutta. There are some institutions outside these cities where English is still tolerably well spoken, taught and understood. Bangalore, Dehra Dun, Ajmer, Nainital, Mussoorie and a few other hill-stations have schools which maintain a fairly high standard of English.

In the cities there are schools that teach seriously through the English medium, and others that teach nominally through the English medium. Of these two categories of secondary school the first presents fewer problems. It is attended by children who generally come from homes in which English is still spoken, if not as a first language, as a competent second language. The second type of school is rarely attended by such children. Or if they do attend they remain isolated from the main student body. Also, the teachers at this type of school are generally, though not always, less well-equipped to teach English as a first language.

The quickest way of distinguishing one type of school from the other is this: when the children are at recess, what language do they speak? In the second kind of school they almost certainly speak the language of the region, the mother-tongue of most children. The best way of teaching an English-speaking child Hindi or a regional language is to send him to such a school. Conversely, his English may suffer unless he is guided at home.

This, then, is the climate in which children between 11 and 17 years of age study English today. They rarely master it because they rarely hear it spoken as it should be spoken.

How is English to be Studied?

Is there a solution? For the time being, let us not enter into the problems of curriculum, textbooks or examinations connected with this issue. The most fundamental problem in English teaching is that at both types of school an inadequate appeal is made to the ear, and it is only through an appeal to the ear that a language can be taught. The best aid is the human voice, particularly the voice of someone who has a mastery of language. And we must not be too easy-going in our interpretation of 'mastery'. There is no

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such thing as 'more-or-less English'. Nothing less than correct English will do.

As there are few teachers at the secondary level who speak correct English, we must depend on the tape-recorder, gramophone, radio, and TV where it is available.

The Listening Habit

It is not enough to give children perfect recordings at this stage, for they are not able to appreciate a perfect recording, unless it is heard against one which is not perfect. A lesson in comparative excellence is useful, so a perfect recording should be followed by mediocre and bad recordings of the same passage. The last might well be spoken by an average pupil of an average Indian secondary school where the medium is English. Only by doing this regularly will pupils acquire the listening habit, which is the first step to learning a language.

When the children, and the teacher, have listened well to graded recordings, they are ready to speak the language. Imitation at this stage is good, even if it causes amusement and ridicule. Many teachers in the second type of school say a child who speaks good English is constantly ridiculed. The corrective to this tiresome attitude is to dramatize prescribed English texts, making it clear to the group that performs that uneven English destroys credibility and pleasure, and that the highest, not the lowest, common denominator must set the standard.

Time-tables and Teaching Techniques

If this method is adopted, the children will begin to speak, discuss and explain of their own accord. This is the time to make them acquainted with prescribed texts. Teachers who resist this meticulous training say that there is no time for it in a time-table which is tailored to examination needs. They are unable to give to spoken English the attention that the listening programme implies. But the programme recommended here is not an isolated or specialized one. It is an integral part of the pattern of English teaching and learning. It is not the polishing process that teachers believe it to be. The texts prescribed for the examination must in fact be taught this way: first played on a record, then read aloud, explained and finally analysed with the participation of the pupils.

Need this listening programme take more time than the conventional one of paraphrase and writing in class? I think not. If it is begun at an early stage both teachers and pupils will become adept at it. As time goes on more and more children should take over the

business of speaking, while the teacher acts as a moderator. And once the pupils begin to acquire a control over language, there will be no difficulty in teaching the curriculum within the time prescribed. What I recommend here is merely an untried way of teaching an orthodox examination curriculum. Lessons in composition become lessons first in speaking and then in writing. Exercises in reading become exercises in understanding through the ear, for much information is conveyed through discussion. At no point is thinking subordinated to the process of merely mastering words verbally. Also, since the thinking process is bound up inextricably with words, there is no separation of thought and expression. This method is not taught in training colleges yet, but teachers must be given refresher courses to be drilled in its use.

Again, teachers say that the time allotted to grammar is too short to allow for linguistic experiments. But must we teach junior pupils grammar? Surely grammar should be taught only after pupils have become fluent in spoken and written English through listening. Then grammar is easier to learn, and should be taught through constant verbal practice, not through abstract definitions that mean nothing to children at the secondary school level.

What English shall we Teach?

This leads us to the problem we postponed for discussion eventually. The teacher claims that much of his difficulty in teaching English lies in (i) the poor selection of prescribed material, and (ii) the impossibility of teaching poetry at all. These points must be examined.

Certainly, textbooks prescribed for the higher secondary examination of Delhi University leave much to be desired. Prose selections are ridiculously uneven, containing simple legends, such as Yudhishtira's entry into paradise, and Cardinal Newman's 'Idea of a University', which is beyond the understanding of most children of sixteen in India today. A prose selection must be made for a specific purpose. Instead we have a haphazard choice made in the hope that no harm will come to the student by reading it. Modern writing must be included to show how the English language is still growing and changing. It has not come to a stop as most school anthologies would lead us to believe. Selections for the school certificate examination are more carefully compiled, but even here some reorientation is necessary so that the Indian child is not constantly asked to appreciate English life which he has not seen and may never see. There is some good English writing on India. It should be used more to encourage children to think in English of things Indian.

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Teaching English Poetry

What is the case for teaching English poetry at the secondary level? I would not rule it out altogether, because most children delight in rhythm and rhyme. I would, however, rule out all abstruse poetry that draws upon the sophisticated use of sound, though an advanced paper at the secondary level could be provided for pupils who hope to read English literature at the university. Generally speaking, narrative poetry is best suited for study at the secondary school level—preferably modern poetry which appeals to the pupil's visual experience.

For poetry, even more than for prose, it is essential to use listening techniques. Only after a poem has been read aloud several times should it be analysed.

There are many other subsidiary problems that we have not considered. One of the complaints of secondary school teachers is that if English were well taught at the primary level, their job would be easier. University professors complain that if it were better taught at the secondary level, *their* job would be easier! This is true, for our problem is a vicious circle. Who first causes the teaching of bad English if not a teacher who is himself a product of bad teaching?

There is no defect so serious and enduring at the age of eleven that cannot be corrected before the age of seventeen. It is for this reason that I fasten my hopes on the secondary school level. If the English at this stage is inadequate, as it certainly is today, let us look at the curriculum of the training colleges to find out what is wrong.

MURIEL WASI

Wastage in Secondary Education

A NATIONAL SURVEY was recently made on the problem of wastage in secondary education, and it revealed some startling facts. It was found that out of every hundred pupils who join high school in Standard VI, only 50 per cent reach Standard X, and 25 per cent pass a secondary school-leaving examination. This wastage is likely to increase rather than decrease with the current quantitative expansion in secondary education and the conversion of a large number of high schools into higher secondary schools. It is fitting, therefore, that, in our justifiable zeal to increase facilities for secondary

education and upgrade our high schools with a view to improving the quality of secondary education, we should pause to consider this problem. We must analyse the causes in order to find a solution to a problem which results in frustration for thousands of adolescents.

In order to see this problem of wastage in a proper perspective, we must realize that it is not confined to India. In the United Kingdom, after the Eleven Plus selection examination at the end of the primary stage, approximately 20 per cent of pupils are sent to secondary grammar schools, and of these probably 15 per cent matriculate. The other 80 per cent go to secondary technical schools, where they are given a general education with a technical or practical bias, and leave at the age of 15 or 16, only a small proportion of them securing a recognized public school-leaving certificate. In the United States, though 80 per cent of pupils go through high school, only 20 per cent graduate with a high school diploma that will admit them to a university, and in Europe the percentage of pupils who graduate from *lycées* or gymnasiums is even smaller. Hence in most countries only 20 per cent of secondary school pupils actually obtain a matriculation type of school-leaving certificate. Professor McClelland, after a comprehensive study of 4,000 school leavers in Scotland, came to the conclusion that only 15 per cent of adolescents in any country are capable of benefiting from the academic type of secondary education that is required by the school-leaving certificate.

The problem of wastage in secondary education is, therefore, common to all countries and, if McClelland is correct, inevitable. The problem is aggravated in India, however, because of the great imbalance between education and employment here. In other countries students who leave school without matriculating are able to find satisfactory employment in a wide variety of skilled and semi-skilled work. In India, though a school-leaving certificate is demanded of most applicants for jobs in commerce or industry, it carries little weight in securing a living wage. So the sorry plight of the thousands who leave school without a certificate can be imagined !

Causes of Wastage

At the root of the problem is the fact that the vast majority of pupils do not have the intelligence to qualify for the school-leaving certificate, which is of an academic nature and demands an above-average I.Q. Even given the best teachers, the best books and teaching aids, this fact cannot be altered. A considerable aspect of the problem is, therefore, inherent and inevitable in the secondary

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school situation. But part of the problem is soluble, and it is with this part we must first deal.

While the majority of pupils drop out of secondary school between Standards VI and X because they lack intelligence, there is a fair number who do so for financial reasons, or because of unfavourable conditions at home. A careful investigation of individual causes, followed by advice, would enable many a pupil to finish high school. Further, it is also true that among those who fail in the public school-leaving examination, there are very many who would succeed under better personal circumstances. Indeed, in view of the policy of survival of the fittest that governs promotion in most high schools, every pupil who reaches Standard X should have the ability to pass a school-leaving examination. Some of the causes for these failures are malnutrition, poor home circumstances and lack of encouragement from parents, lack of individual attention in large classes, poor teaching, and lack of teaching aids.

Remedial Measures

Our secondary schools can and should take immediate steps to remedy these shortcomings. The following measures are suggested:

1. Small tutorial classes should be started, in which the specific educational and psychological defects of potential 'drop-outs' are considered and corrected. These classes, conducted after school-hours, would do much to mitigate the private tuition scandal and the bazaar notes racket that are undermining the morale of both pupils and teachers.

2. Teachers, and school authorities in general, should adopt a more sympathetic attitude towards potential failures, especially in understanding the limitations of their home backgrounds. Parent-teacher associations can do valuable work in this field.

3. A school guidance service should be established in every school. Every secondary school should have a fully trained counsellor on its staff, who, in close co-operation with the principal and parents, will counsel all pupils, especially the backward and mal-adjusted ones.

These measures will help to turn many potential failures into successes, and reduce appreciably the present wastage.

But the hard core of the problem will remain as long as a large number of pupils are unable to benefit from the type of secondary education provided by our secondary schools. The provision of diversified types of secondary education, according to the scheme prepared by the Mudaliar Commission, which is being implemented in higher secondary multipurpose schools throughout India, will solve this problem to a degree.

Only the above-average pupils are able to complete the heavy and exacting course of general-cum-specialized studies in higher secondary schools. In fact so great is the burden of core and elective subjects, even for those who choose the less exacting, diversified courses such as home science, fine arts or commerce, that it is doubtful whether even 25 per cent of pupils can obtain a higher secondary school certificate.

Can anything be done about this aspect of the problem? There appears to be only one feasible solution. A nation-wide selection examination consisting of psychological tests, cumulative school records, teachers' estimates and standardized objective tests should be administered to all pupils at the end of Standard VIII, at the age of 14 plus. Those who pass the test should be permitted to appear for the higher secondary certificate examination. The others, who will be in a majority, should be diverted to other types of secondary education provided in a variety of institutions such as junior technical schools, trade and industrial schools, and commercial schools. This training will prepare them for careers as skilled or semi-skilled workers in industry or commerce. Alternatively, comprehensive high schools of the American type could be set up in which all pupils of secondary school age may be trained according to their special abilities, aptitudes and ambitions.

The problem of wastage is likely to increase greatly in the years ahead, as compulsory and free primary education is instituted throughout the country. Unless we face this problem here and now, and devise measures to mitigate it, it will defeat the very purpose of education.

AUSTIN A. DE SOUZA

A School in Orbit

DURING THE SUMMER HOLIDAYS, the Vidya Bhavan Higher Secondary School of Udaipur launched 'a manned capsule'. This was a special bus which took thirty-four pupils, eight teachers, two cooks and a crew of three on a 4,700 mile tour of South India. We covered seven states in the course of five weeks.

This article is not a travelogue. It is an assessment of the educational value of our tour, and may help other schools which wish to embark on so ambitious an adventure.

We called it an educational tour, for a tour cannot fail to be

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educational. It was not merely a round of tourist attractions with lectures by indifferent guides. These were the least part of our education. Of lasting value were the pupils' own impressions and thoughts, sometimes stimulated by ideas expressed by the teachers.

Contrast is a great educator. We noticed that the South is different from the North in many ways. The pupils were charmed by the men's lungis, women's hair-dos, and the comic-opera head-dress of the policemen in Madras state. Never before had they seen cattle with swept-back horns. The food, too, was a new experience for us.

A Study in Contrasts

There were many contrasts in the South itself. From mountainous Ooty, with its English landscape and climate, we travelled down in a few hours to the sweltering, tropical coast of Kerala with its lush greenery, endless paddy fields and coconut groves. The sea! Many of us were seeing it for the first time. And none of us had seen a sunrise to match that at Cape Comorin.

From the populous coast of Kerala we travelled to the open plains of South Madras, where sleepy Tamil villages have mellifluous names as long as their main streets—Kovalipattinagapuram. The humble, unspoilt village temples were doubly enchanting after the big, ugly Minakshi temple at Madurai, garish and commercialized.

These are but a few of the impressions of the South we shall always carry. The pupils were encouraged not only to see the sights, but to discuss them. Ajanta and Ellora are monuments to a leisured past when men could record their inspirations in rock. The giant statue of Gomteshwar at Sravanabelgola was made by a politician in his spare time. We wondered how much time he could have devoted to politics! We saw within a space of ten miles the dead splendour of the Vijayanagar Empire at Hampi, and the living splendour of the Tungabhadra dam at Hospet. There was no doubt in our pupils' minds which was the more valuable of the two piles—the stones at Hampi, a monument to dead kings, or those at Hospet, working for the welfare of the living.

Visits to Gandhigram, a community welfare settlement near Madurai, and to the Shri Aurobindo Ashram at Pondicherry also gave much food for thought. The dedicated workers of Gandhigram live as simply as the villagers whom they help. The ashram at Pondicherry is a picture of plenty in the midst of poverty, an attempt to find spiritual fulfilment through luxurious libraries, swimming pools and restaurants. The lengthy apologetics of our host could not prevent us from thinking that the money spent on the iced-water machine might have been used for the education of ten poor children.

One of the most interesting places we visited was the strange fortress at Daulatabad, which captured every boy's imagination. Then we saw supersonic fighter aircraft coming off the assembly line at Bangalore. This was a fine opportunity to discuss various methods of warfare.

Kerala was humming with activity. Bridges were being built, roads were under construction, irrigation schemes proving successful, and new industries flourishing. We sadly contrasted our own primitive Rajasthan with this progressive state.

We saw examples of foreign help and co-operation at the Indo-Norwegian Fisheries Project near Quilon, and at the Hindustan Machine Tools factory at Bangalore, where West German and Swiss technicians are giving India the benefit of their skill.

There were many opportunities to discuss the linguistic problem with our South Indian hosts.

Official Attitudes

We also had a taste of bureaucracy and red-tapism on this tour. After the hospitality of the South we were baffled by the attitude of the Law in Madhya Pradesh. Policemen in every town and village from Multai to Nimach stopped us to inspect our papers, as if we were enemy agents. India became free in 1947, but Indians cannot travel freely in Madhya Pradesh in 1963!

In Tiruchchirappalli and Hyderabad we saw two religious groups celebrating their festivals with strangely morbid rites of self-castigation. We were glad that the modern Indian schoolboy exhibited a healthy disgust at these unsavoury spectacles. At Pondicherry we had seen devotees prostrating themselves before a tomb containing the mortal remains of their leader. How much more eloquent is the empty bed at Sevagram, as the pupils remarked.

We saw the good work done at the leper hospital at Tapovan, Amravati, and the wise application of industrial profits to public welfare at Indore. We saw vegetarians catching fish in Kerala, and scientific egg production at Gandhigram.

So much food for thought, on such a great variety of topics! This was education at its best. We were acquiring first-hand experience and gathering material for thought and discussion. It was a great challenge for the teacher, who must encourage the pupils to express their impressions. Even the simplest academic problem comes to life in the light of first-hand experience: Physics—why is a hill-station cold? Chemistry—why can't we wash with soap in the sea? Zoology—why are there no camels in the South? Geography—how did Dhanushkodi come into existence? Botany—why must tea bushes be planted in the shade of trees? History—

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does Kerala owe its progressive ways to its long connexion with European and Arab travellers? Medicine—is leprosy being eradicated in India? Such questions are no longer answered with dry facts learnt from books. The answers come from personal experience.

A New India in the Making

We cannot claim that all the pupils were interested in every part of the tour, nor did we expect them to be. We gave them as rich a variety as possible, in the hope that each would find something to inspire him in his studies and in later life. 'How can I best serve my country when my education is finished?' This is a question every child at the higher secondary stage should ask. Our pupils saw examples of engineering, village welfare, scientific agriculture, irrigation and power, medical work, and industrial progress. They saw people building a new India in many different ways. This was the most important feature of the tour.

We also learnt to make the most of our leisure hours. We splashed in the sea at Kanniyakumari, Rameswaram and Madras, and found time for shopping in all the cities on our route, buying a fine assortment of presents to take home.

Planning the Tour

Such was our educational tour, a carefully balanced diet of old and new India, of facts and ideas, of pleasure and instruction. Its success was not left to chance. It was the result of detailed planning and hard work for five months.

It all started back in December 1962, when we pored over road-maps provided by the Government Tourist Bureau. We allowed for an average of 150 miles a day, with a two-night stop every two or three days, and an occasional spurt of 200 miles or more where necessary. Then we studied tourist pamphlets for places of historical and scenic interest, and directories and year-books for industrial projects and social institutions. We applied to twelve industrial concerns for permission to visit them. Six agreed, three refused, and the rest did not reply. This left us rather short of industrial visits—one of the few defects of our tour. In future we shall make applications well in advance, so that in case of refusals there will be time to make alternative plans.

The theme of the tour was variety. We wanted the pupils to see a fair cross-section of India. Balance is essential. Too many temples or too many factories would be monotonous. We found that small institutions are as interesting and instructive as vast factories, and the welcome we received there was more informal and sincere. Each visit should be a vital piece in the jigsaw puzzle of

Indian life. Special emphasis was laid on visits which might help the pupils to choose their future careers.

When the route was chosen and an itinerary planned, an hour-to-hour time-table was drafted. Then we wrote to the directors of public instruction of the states we wished to visit, asking them to arrange accommodation. Most of them, but not all, were very helpful, and their co-operation made progress easy. We caused great inconvenience to one kind host by arriving a day late, and we ruthlessly axed a day off our programme to get back on the road. We learnt that a time-table must be followed strictly if a tour is to be successful. Time, at first, was our enemy. For the first few days we treated the time-table with traditional Indian casualness. We said, 'We must start at 7 a.m.', but did not do so until 8.30. We said, 'Let's stay here for thirty minutes', and actually stopped for ninety. After three days of this we were twelve hours behind schedule and realized the necessity of mending our ways. From then on, we hustled like Americans. We enjoyed being punctual and had time, not to waste, but to spare. We could loiter and enjoy the scenery without a feeling of guilt. It must be admitted that some of the staff found the hustling not at all to their liking. The order was, 'Rise at four, start at six'. The staff were the last to open an unwilling eye at 5.30, but the boys loved it. If we have trained a new generation of punctual Indians, we shall consider some of the hardships worth while!

After considering tenders from various bus companies, we estimated the cost of the tour at Rs 250 per head, including food. This budget was balanced almost to the last naya paisa, although we were nearly defeated by the unexpected extra mileage. The town-to-town distance was only 3,800 miles, but no less than 900 miles were covered by side excursions. For example, the Brindavan Gardens are twelve miles from Mysore, and Osmannagar is ten miles from Hyderabad. These trips had to be severely limited.

We had the perfect driver. He was competent, tireless, patient and unfailingly good-humoured. Other tourists may not be so lucky. Good humour is an essential in everyone. Five weeks of touring is fatiguing both physically and mentally. It is an education in social living. Tempers must not flare up, enmities must not arise. A few rough edges were knocked off some people, and we all benefited by the companionship of the journey. We were a band of forty-seven brothers. Of the 830 hours of the tour, we spent over 200 in the bus. That was a world of its own, in which we slept, played games, watched the scenery, sang, talked and laughed, although the jolts of the bus and the roar of the diesel engine penetrated our very bones.

Afterthoughts

After five weeks we had had enough. We were ready for home. Even the barren yellow fields of Rajasthan were pleasing to eyes which had feasted on the vivid green of the South. We were mentally and physically exhausted, and saturated with new experiences. There were some complaints that we had not seen everything. We missed Belur, Somnath, Tanjore and Chidambaram, and the opportunity to visit them may not occur again. It was hard but inevitable. We saw all that could be seen in five weeks, and the pupils could not have benefited by more.

We had hoped for more leisure to keep diaries, make sketches, and listen to educational talks. But there was never time for such things. Too much to see and to do! Every minute we could spare was spent on essentials, such as washing clothes. Even eating and sleeping were curtailed.

Our meals were left to chance from day to day. When we had time to spare we bought food in bulk, and our cooks prepared it. At other times, we stopped at a hotel and ordered forty-seven meals. We shall always remember the Woodlands Hotel at Harihar for its prompt and cheerful response to this formidable order. At most stopping-places accommodation had been previously arranged in schools, where we slept on verandas or in classrooms, and used their washing and toilet facilities. At other places, we found dharm-salas. Once we slept in the yard of an oilmill, once in a station yard, and once on a shop veranda facing the street. One evening we helped a man haul his car out of the mud. In return he invited us to spend the night at his house. Luck was with us again, because it rained heavily, that night.

One more thing must be said now that we are safely home. Many thought we were taking a great risk, and some parents refused to let their children go. Timid headmasters will never dare to embark on such a venture. Every one of us must have imagined an accident 2,000 miles from home, with forty-seven people stranded, some of them injured perhaps. A delay of several days would exhaust our funds. But these thoughts were never uttered. Is it reasonable to expect to cover over 4,000 miles without a mishap? We did it, with nothing more serious than a collision with a low bridge in the Nilgiris, which damaged some of the luggage on the roof of the bus. We were not prepared for emergencies, and perhaps this is foolish, but we had confidence and courage. Had we needed a Southern Samaritan, we believe we would have found one.

Every venture is an adventure, the timid never really live. As for us, we are counting the days to next year's tour.

J. C. W. RUST

A Model Constitution for Self-government Bodies in Secondary Schools

SELF-GOVERNMENT in a school community is a very important item of education in a democracy, where so much depends on initiative, self-reliance, hard work, restraint, and persuasive speaking. The success of self-government depends largely on the foresight and broadmindedness of the head of the institution and his senior staff. There is a good deal of literature on the subject, beginning with Dr Krishnayya's book, *Citizen-Training in School*, first published thirty years ago. Among the best of recent publications is *How to be a Successful Headmaster* by Jaswant Singh.

This article presents a draft constitution which is incomplete in many respects. It is meant for a non-residential or a partly residential day school and is based primarily on my own experience in a large school of the latter type in Bihar. There is room for improvement, and comments from readers will be useful. The draft will need modification according to local conditions and the standard of organization obtaining in the school. The chief requirements for successful self-government are understanding, experimentation, the training of pupils and staff, and above all an unfaltering determination to succeed.

The specialized societies mentioned in Item IV of the draft would be concerned with subjects such as agriculture, commerce, crafts, technology, fine arts, and home science. They also include a scout court of honour and hobby clubs. In fact the number of such societies in an active school community will be as many as the ingenuity of adolescents can create. There is no objection to multiple societies in a single body provided the financial administration is sound, their affairs conducted in accordance with the spirit of the constitution adopted and, above all, they provide valuable experience for the emotional growth of adolescents. Indeed, if these conditions are not fulfilled, the assemblies, councils, and societies are likely to deteriorate into breeding grounds for factiousness and indiscipline. Hence the need for constant supervision and foresight, which alone can prevent ugly developments from misguided energy. A principal engaged in training his pupils to this new way of life will find such an experiment no bed of roses. He must avoid cheap showmanship, which often poisons these enterprises at the root. This may make him appear too conservative to certain VIPs who hold nothing sacred. But if education is to be saved, the principal must enjoy independence in the administrative sphere.

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The Preparatory Stage

The principal uses his power of veto primarily to prevent the fledgling self-governing body from foundering. But he must use it sparingly. The actual experiment may be preceded by a term of preparatory work. During this preparatory period, the veto should not be used. The office-bearers or other elected pupils should be helped to arrive at correct decisions through informal consultation. This may involve considerable coaching and proxy work. When a situation arises which would in the formal disposal of a case attract the veto, its aspects must be explained. If this preparatory work is done with care, a firm foundation will be laid for the success of democracy in the school.

The veto should never be used merely as a face-saving device. Nor should it be used if the majority of the pupils are against it, for such use is not conducive to the growth of democracy. If such situations crop up frequently, it means the school is not ready for self-government and more spadework must be done. It is assumed that the headmaster constantly feels the school's pulse.

Let us consider some of the other objectives of this preparatory period. Pupils should be helped to grasp the meaning and principles of law. They should be taught to distinguish between proper jurisdiction and what is *ultra vires*. If these organs of school self-government are to make a good beginning and to achieve even a modicum of success, the elected pupils must learn to consider the pros and cons of every problem. Adolescents are inclined to be over-enthusiastic and may attempt too much. They must be taught to hasten slowly.

A DRAFT CONSTITUTION

I. A CLASS REPRESENTATIVES' ASSEMBLY. All members of the Class Representatives' Council, the Physical, Scouting, and Defence Education Council, the Debaters' and the Hostel Councils will together form the Class Representatives' Assembly. The assembly should meet at least once every term to review the work done by the four constituent councils, to make suggestions regarding the future programme of work, and to transact other business which may be referred to it by the principal. The principal, the assistant principal and the secretary of the Class Representatives' Council function respectively as president, vice-president and secretary. One-third of the members form the quorum. The secretary will keep a record of the assembly's activities, which must be shown to the president after every meeting. Generally, the president presides at the meetings, and in his absence, the vice-president. In the absence

of the latter, one of the members is elected to preside. The assembly is free to invite one or more members of the staff to attend a meeting, such invitations being issued by the secretary in consultation with the president. Other eminent persons may also be invited. This body will approximate to the school parliament.

The constitution of the councils is outlined below.

II. A CLASS REPRESENTATIVES' COUNCIL. This will be composed of the first-class representatives of each class. Only pupils who have passed in all subjects in the preceding annual examination and have suffered no punishment will be eligible for candidature. A member of this council has the duties of a monitor or prefect. He assists the class-master in all matters relating to the well-being and progress of the class. He may, with experience, take the place of the class-master if necessary, and assist the school authorities whenever called upon to do so. It must be stressed, however, that none of these duties should be allowed to interfere with his studies.

When a distinguished person visits the class, the teacher should introduce him to the council member. In short, he is the leader of the class. He acts as a judge when the council tries cases of misconduct. Here too a proceedings book should be maintained to record the work, suggestions and decisions of the council. These will be subject to the approval of the principal, who has the power of veto. The principal and the assistant principal will be respectively the president and vice-president of the council, which will elect its own secretary, subject to the approval of the principal. It may meet as often as necessary, but at least once a month.

III. A PHYSICAL, SCOUTING, AND DEFENCE EDUCATION COUNCIL. This will be composed of the second-class representatives of each class. Only those pupils who were promoted after the preceding final examination and have suffered no punishment will be eligible for candidature. A member of this council will function as class-captain and drill-leader. He must assist the class-master and the games' superintendent in all matters relating to physical education, scoutcraft and defence education. If necessary, he may have an assistant each for games, drill and gymnastics, scouting, and defence education. One of his important functions is to take the place of the first-class representative if the latter is absent. The secretary of this council will assist in the management of all activities, and will assume progressively more and more responsibility in co-operation with the staff. The council will hold a meeting at least once a month, the secretary keeping a record of its proceedings. Its decisions are subject to the approval of the principal, who has the

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power of veto. It will elect its own secretary, subject to the principal's approval. The principal will be the president, the assistant principal the games superintendent, the physical education teacher the senior scoutmaster, and the senior N.C.C. officers will be vice-presidents of the council.

IV. A DEBATERS' COUNCIL. (i) This will be composed of the third-class representatives of each class. Qualification for membership will be the same as for that of the P.S.D.E. Council. Each member will be the secretary of his class debating society, and it is his duty to help make his class proficient in debating. He must take the place of his immediate superior when the latter is absent. The principal will be president, the assistant principal the working president, and the senior teachers of each subject will be vice-presidents. The council elects its own secretary and a number of joint-secretaries, subject to the approval of the principal. The chief function of this council is to stimulate, supervise and co-ordinate the activities of the debating and other specialized societies of the school. It should meet at least once every quarter.

(ii) The secretary of the council will be the secretary of the Senior Debating Society, school membership being open to Class IX upwards. The regional language will generally be the medium of debates, though English should have an important place in the society. Members may speak in the language of their choice.

(iii) One of the joint-secretaries will be the secretary of the Junior Debating Society, membership being open to Classes VI to VIII. The regional language should have an important place in the society, though members are free to speak in the language of their choice.

(iv) The secretary and joint-secretaries will be members of the literary, scientific, and other societies. Teachers of the relative subjects will be president and vice-president of each of these societies, which will elect their own secretaries. The secretaries of these specialized societies may be invited to participate in the meetings of the Debaters' Council whenever necessary, and they should submit periodical reports of their own societies to the council, which co-ordinates all these activities.

(v) A few members of the council will be secretaries and assistant secretaries of the common room and of the school library.

V. A HOSTEL COUNCIL. This council will deal with important affairs concerning the life of the boarders. Elections will be class-wise, that is, there should be at least one representative from the boarders of each class. Qualifications for membership will be the same as those for the P.S.D.E. Council. Elections will be held in one of the hostels, and superintendents of all the hostels should be

present, one of them presiding. The principal will be the president, the assistant principal vice-president, and the superintendents working vice-presidents. The council elects its own secretary, subject to the principal's approval. It functions by the same methods as the P.S.D.E. Council. It will consist of the fourth-class representatives of each class. In particular, the hostel council should assist in keeping the hostel and school grounds clean, see that the mess is efficiently run, supervise during study hours, and organize extra-curricular activities.

VI. Elections to the councils, the Hostel Council being excepted, will be conducted in the classrooms by the class-masters concerned, and the results must be reported in writing to the principal the same day. Votes may be given by a show of hands or by secret ballot, as the pupils choose. In case of the latter method, the arrangements must be made by them. Election to the Hostel Council will take place the same evening or the next day. All elections should be held at the beginning of the school year, within ten days of the last date for admission of pupils. A pupil should not be a member of more than one council, except in very special circumstances.

VII. A case for which there is no provision in the constitution may be referred to the principal, and his decision will be final. He may, however, consult the Class Representatives' Council or the Staff Council if he is in doubt.

VIII. A STAFF COUNCIL. There should be a Staff Council of not more than one-third or one-fourth of the total strength of the staff. This body will be independent of any other teachers' association, and should be concerned with administration, academic work, organizational work, housing problems, and co-curricular activities. The principal will be the president and he will nominate a secretary from among the members. The staff should elect the members by secret ballot. This council may function as a standing consulting committee on all important matters affecting the life of the school. The proceedings of this council will be informal, and at times confidential. No record need be kept, but the secretary or principal may keep such notes or memoranda as he considers necessary.

IX. Suggestions for improvement of the constitution may be made in writing to the secretary of the Class Representatives' Council, and they will be considered periodically.

S. THAKUR

Creative Writing for Children

AT HEART we are all story-tellers. Each of us has a story to tell, and is seeking an audience. A child is also eager to tell his story. He wants to share his impressions of his home, family and pets. He needs only to be given confidence and assurance that he has a sympathetic listener. Even the most timid child is eloquent when he realizes that he has something interesting to tell.

Many feel that it is difficult to make children express themselves in writing. But we know that this is not so, and in this article we shall discuss some of the many ways to inspire children to creative writing.

What is Creative Writing?

Can we define creative writing? Some say that creative writing might better be called recreative writing, since it recreates for the reader the experiences of the writer. In general, creative writing tends to appeal to the senses.

Mary Mitchell¹ says in an article that creative writing, by definition, demands subject-matter which is drawn from innate ideas or from the material world, transmuted by imagination, understanding, quickened perception, observation and experience.

In the early stages of creative writing originality is more important than grammar. The pleasure that a child derives from writing is of first importance. It begins in the kindergarten when a child says: 'I'm Tommy Clark. I got a dog, home, and a baby. I like my dog.' Such a story was not made to suit the specific requirements of the teacher. It grew out of a child's natural impulse to share his experiences with new acquaintances.

Creative writing is the spontaneous translation of experiences into words. It is distinguished from other forms of composition by the absence of external motives, for it is done primarily for its own sake, and comes from experience possessing intrinsic rather than practical values.

McKee² tells us that there are three things to avoid in creative writing. First, some teachers believe that mere self-expression is enough, even if it lacks originality. Second, the teacher offers the child no help or guidance in improving the quality of his writing. And third, the child is asked to write a story that merely copies the form of another story he happens to be studying.

¹ Mary Mitchell, 'Creative Writing in the Primary Grades', *Education*, February 1945.

² Paul McKee, *Language in the Elementary School* (Houghton Mifflin, 1936).

How to make Children Write

All normal children can write. But the retarded child can also write, for after all he has many experiences which are meaningful to him, and he can be emotionally aroused too.

How does story-writing begin in the first place? When a teacher has a new class, he may begin by telling stories that other children have written. By doing this he is laying the foundation for good listening habits, and creating a desire to write. This process of initiation is very important. Whether we are working with the third or the sixth grade, we should use this process till the pupils are prompted to action. With some groups, two or three weeks may be sufficient, while others may require a whole term. Finally, the teacher may suggest a theme for story-writing. Pupils who are keen to write may set to it, while the others are engaged in different activities. No one should be forced to write.

Children will want to write if the atmosphere and the environment are conducive to creative writing, and the subject must be within their realm of experience. The best time to encourage a child to write is when he is struggling for expression. One teacher built, with some cardboard and lumber, a 'writing castle' in the classroom. It was equipped with a comfortable desk, some paper, and a pencil. Whenever the pupils felt they had something worth writing, they went to the booth and put down their thoughts.

The teacher's attitude is very important. Without a sympathetic teacher not many children will try or even dare to express themselves. A discouraging word or lack of interest may destroy any creative urge a child may have.

The kindergarten teacher has the best opportunity for laying a good foundation. A child coming to school for the first time is full of new experiences and vivid impressions. He tries to express his feelings by drawing pictures and telling stories. Consequently, his earliest attempts at creative writing may be in the form of pictures with long oral explanations. In the first grade pictures are still drawn, but before long captions begin to appear beside them. Soon captions are replaced by stories.

Excursions and Hobbies

To increase experience and develop imagination, the teacher should plan excursions and encourage hobbies. Unfortunately most teachers merely depend on word practice, drill, dictation, and lessons in how to write a letter. The development of craftsmanship must come later. To begin with we should not interfere with the flow of ideas and words.

To develop a desire to write, Mitchell recommends a test to find out how many words a child can write in ten minutes without regard for spelling. Most think this an amusing game, and wish to share the results of their efforts with others. Reading aloud what they have written is fun too, and it reveals their interests. Usually children ask to do it again, and as they repeat the game, they approach the stage of composition.

A large chart on which the pupils keep a record of their writing also stimulates interest.

After the pupils have written several stories, they want to improve their spelling. One teacher helped by providing each pupil with a notebook in which he wrote the words he needed for his composition. When he learnt the spelling of a new word, he also recorded it in his book instead of on the blackboard. This teaches the pupil to be independent in his work.

Group work also stimulates individual writing. Sharing experiences and ideas usually helps to overcome timidity and self-consciousness.

Many teachers are shocked by what pupils write, but a child must feel free to say what he feels. The young should be encouraged to express themselves without fear of rebuke.

Burrows¹ explains that some children can write in the midst of activity while others want to be alone. Some think out their stories in advance, while others compose as they proceed. Sometimes children like to write in partnership, and teachers find that those who have produced little by themselves work well with others.

One teacher took his class outdoors on a cool December day. They looked at the clouds, discussed them, and then the teacher read a poem about clouds. He asked the pupils what they would do with a cloud if they could bring it down to earth. They had many ideas. One child said he would mount the cloud and ride away. Another said he would make the cloud his sailboat and sail over the ocean. When they went back to the classroom they wrote their stories. This was the teacher's first experience with a class in creative writing, and the results were most rewarding.

Evaluating Creative Writing

Pupils at the lower secondary level should not be held to adult standards of writing. Once a pupil has learnt to express himself, the teacher may deal with spelling, punctuation, grammar and style. If the child is forced to copy a set style, much of the creative urge will be destroyed. Some children will realize at the start that their

¹ Alvina Burrows, *They All Want to Write* (Prentice-Hall, 1950).

spelling is incorrect and ask for help. Others will be too eager to put their thoughts in writing to worry about such matters.

At the primary stage the favourite topics are the home, family, pets, and holiday experiences. But at the lower secondary stage, pupils begin to look at the world around them. They may write about familiar figures and activities in their community. Many are interested in writing letters to children in other cities. Some may write articles or stories for the class or school magazine, or stories to read to other children.

No distinction need be made between prose and poetry. If rhyming comes naturally to some children, it is well to let them write in verse.

Values of Creative Writing

In our anxiety to keep unpleasant things from children, we sometimes put them in solitary confinement with the things they fear most. Children are very frank. What may appear to be poor taste to us, is often an honest statement of fact from an eight-year-old. We tend to overlook the fact that the more disturbing an experience, the greater may be the child's need for sharing it.

As pupils progress in creative writing, their personalities develop. Even a timid child who has nothing to say in class may have something to write about, and so reveal clues to deep emotional problems.

A wider vocabulary and improved spelling are two of the many rewards of creative writing. It also develops a child's ability to reason and interpret, to examine thoughts and feelings.

Writing can bring satisfaction to a child only if he feels the need to write. Teachers should realize that compulsion can bring little success.

The child who is creating is learning. He is doing something in which he is interested. He does not have to be driven to work. He will spend many hours creating because he enjoys it.

RAJENDRA ROY

Some Aspects of History Teaching

HISTORY is one of the core subjects in a school curriculum, but unfortunately it is taught with little enthusiasm in most elementary and secondary schools. It is both a useful and an interesting subject, and if India's freedom is to survive and this infant democracy to grow to maturity, the foundations of historical knowledge must be well laid.

Aims of History Teaching

What should our aims be in teaching history? The study of this subject should help pupils to make a correct appraisal of the past, and enable them to realize that while politics may divide us, culture unites us, that beneath a thin veneer of diversity, there is a unity which binds the people of this country. Also, while patriotism is our watchword, we must also teach the value of co-existence, for no country can survive in isolation.

Another important aim of history teaching is to train the young to be useful citizens. Before they go out into the world they should have a keen sense of their rights and responsibilities.

History and Social Studies

If these aims are to be realized, the social studies syllabuses followed in most states must be scrapped. The syllabus prescribed in the state of Madras at present is a hotchpotch of history, economics, politics and geography. It is neither fish nor flesh. It consists of some topics in each of these subjects, but topics which cannot easily be correlated. The idea of teaching social studies originated in America and is now slavishly imitated by our educationists. They forget that while the history of the United States begins only a century and a half ago, ours goes back nearly 5,000 years! American educationists may find it necessary to supplement the history syllabus, but with our rich past, need we burden the syllabus with subjects which do not properly belong to secondary school studies?

The social studies syllabus in Madras state is heavily loaded with topics too difficult for the pupils. We who have watched the working of the syllabus for the past ten years can say that the pupils have not acquired a good grounding in history, economics or politics. Many who passed the Madras S.S.L.C. with social studies showed no interest in world history or economics, which are optional subjects in the pre-university course at Madras University. The activities suggested at the end of each lesson in the social studies textbooks are too ambitious, and are therefore not attempted at all. The present Minister for Education in Madras has condemned the syllabus in no uncertain terms, and has recommended that we revert to the old system of teaching history and geography as separate

subjects. This is a sound suggestion and educationists should support it wholeheartedly.

Local History and World History

If social studies is scrapped and history replaces it, we must consider the relative importance of local history and world history. At present local history dominates the social studies syllabus for Standard IV in Madras. Pupils in this class are required to make a broad study of Indian history and a detailed study of the history and geography of Madras state, as well as of its political set-up. In districts which have played an important part in the development of the state, pupils are required to make a detailed study of local history. This encourages teachers with separatist tendencies to glorify that part of history which appeals to them most. For this reason alone it would be wise to give up the study of local history altogether in the secondary school, though it may be attempted at the university level when students are old enough to think for themselves. If it is taught at the primary stage, lessons should take the form of excursions to places of local historical interest.

At what stage should world history be taught? At present it is taught in Standard X in Madras. But we feel that the proper place for an intensive study of world history is the university. As one of the aims of the teaching of history is the promotion of an international spirit, pupils in the last year of school may study important topics such as the French Revolution, the Industrial Revolution, the first and second world wars, the Russian Revolution, and the founding of the League of Nations and the U.N.O. For if pupils are to understand the problems of the nation, they should have not only a detailed knowledge of their country's history but an elementary knowledge of important events in world history.

Correlation with Civics

If training future citizens is one of the aims of teaching history, civics must be correlated with this subject. Civics should be introduced at the high school stage, for only then are pupils capable of understanding the features of our political institutions. They should be acquainted with the Constitution, and have some knowledge of how the central and state governments work.

Teaching Methods

Having put forward a plea for the study of Indian history throughout the elementary and secondary school stages, with some knowledge of world history and civics at the end of the high school stage, let us discuss some of the methods of teaching history.

Some Aspects of History Teaching

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Indian history should be taught by the concentric method, the subject-matter being graded according to the standard. In Standard III pupils should be taught in story-form the achievements of historical characters such as Asoka, Chandragupta, Akbar, Aurangzeb, Shivaji, Clive, Wellesley, Dalhousie, and our national leaders, Mahatma Gandhi, Sardar Patel and Jawaharlal Nehru. From Standard IV Indian history should be studied according to a graded syllabus, the subject-matter increasing with every standard. If history is taught in this manner, pupils are not likely to forget it on leaving school.

Good textbooks are essential. Unfortunately those prescribed not only treat the subject unscientifically, but facts are often coloured by the authors' prejudices. It is therefore suggested by some educationists that the government alone should publish books on Indian history. But this would be a dangerous practice, because nationalization of textbooks would lead to mental regimentation and intellectual stagnation. Besides, the presentation of subject-matter would vary according to the ideology of the party in power. A better solution would be for the department of education to issue a syllabus, prescribing a certain number of lessons for each topic, and require publishers to produce books in strict accordance with the syllabus. These books would be scrutinized by a textbook committee of experts before being prescribed.

While every encouragement should be given to publishers to produce good history textbooks, the Government of India, under the guidance of the All-India Textbook Committee, should also publish a few model textbooks.

Extensive research in history, geography and architecture has been done recently, and revolutionary changes have taken place in the life and administration of the country. A history textbook should take note of these facts, and a competent body such as the All-India Textbook Committee is best able to estimate men and events. So books published by such a body may serve as models or as reference books for writers of history textbooks.

It is not necessary to stress the importance of excursions. Most teachers realize the value of taking pupils out to see places of historical interest, and concessions are being offered by the government for educational tours.

Another method that may be employed to make the subject interesting is to show historical films. No one can deny the value of the cinema and its influence on the young.

These methods are suggested in the hope that history teaching in our schools will compare favourably with standards in the West one day, without imitating them meaninglessly.

M. V. SUBRAHMANYAM

Education is a Social Process

EDUCATION is essentially a social process, both in principle and in method. It is social in principle because it takes place in a group, and in method because the teaching-learning situation must be related to life. The teacher deals with a group of children who have common aims and purposes. He knows that to impart education effectively the pupils must be moulded into a unit, for learning cannot be an individual activity in school. The development of each child depends on the progress of the group. Consequently the teacher concentrates on the pupils' common interests and needs instead of emphasizing their individual differences. It would be wise, I think, to go slow with the methods of modern psychology which stress individual differences. Eventually, of course, individuality is bound to assert itself in the pupils' varying achievements. But this should not encourage the teacher to exploit individual differences. Instead of neglecting the backward pupils to promote the progressive ones, he should see that each child promotes and stimulates the work of the class as a whole, and that all acquire the essential basic skills. Teaching and learning are most effective when the teacher is convinced that all the children under his care are educable.

This, however, should not make the teacher oblivious to differences in achievements or needs. He must integrate the human material by emphasizing identities rather than distinctions, by reducing disparities in order to raise the general level of the class.

Changing Hereditary Traits

But this does not mean that individual needs should be ignored. For instance, if a child is weak in a certain subject the teacher would do well to investigate the cause rather than put it down to the pupil's lack of intelligence. While it is true that certain mental abilities, or lack of them, are inherited, we must recognize the fact that hereditary traits can be altered. In fact this is what happens to a child throughout the formative period. He is both pliable and educable, so by encouraging the backward pupil we can maintain a fairly even standard of attainment in the class. Because psychologists have stressed individual differences so heavily, we tend to overlook the fact that, with few exceptions, children develop according to a certain pattern which is fundamental to all human growth.

Teachers are aware that a child's mastery of an activity or skill is not automatic or instinctive. It is the result of sustained practice. Thus the level of his achievement at any stage depends on the extent to which his natural potentialities have developed or changed. Opportunity and guidance are all-important.

If a teacher is enslaved by the many psychological theories he learnt at the training college, he will not succeed with his pupils. Mental tests have their value, but they also have many shortcomings. Classifying pupils into groups according to mental ability not only perpetuates differences, but creates new ones, defeating the very purpose of education.

If this argument is accepted, then obviously education must be reorganized from the elementary school upwards. Our task at the elementary stage is to lay a sound foundation for learning and to help all pupils to proceed at the same pace as far as possible.

Such reorganization poses many problems, to be sure, but let us make a beginning by having a single curriculum for all secondary schools. At present one set of subjects is taught at a certain level in one school, while a neighbouring school teaches another set at the same level. When pupils change schools the teacher is faced with a major problem. By the same reasoning, it is also important to adopt a single method for teaching core subjects.

If pupils are to progress at an even pace, no class should have more than twenty-five, for it is impossible to attain a single standard of achievement in a large class.

A wide variety of extra-curricular activities must be provided to broaden the pupils' experience and teach co-operation.

Teachers often absolve themselves from their duties by claiming that pupils should be left to develop according to their 'natural abilities'. But there is no such thing as undirected and unsupervised education. The function of the school and of every educationist is to guide, develop and instruct.

S. B. KAKKAR

History and Civics

LET US CONSIDER why the teaching of history should be correlated with civics. It is aptly said that 'History is the root of Politics, and Politics is the fruit of History'. The same relationship exists between history and civics to a considerable degree. History is one of those subjects which deeply impresses and inspires the young student. Let us therefore plan the syllabus and the teaching of history in such a way that civic virtues will be cultivated in the impressionable minds of children. Let us try to create in them a distaste for all that falls short of good citizenship. It will be a great service to society if we can associate the teaching of history with the making of Indians.

First of all let us re-frame our history syllabus as follows:

The Ancient Period in Indian History. Topics which should be specifically studied:

1. The model townships in the Indus Valley civilization.
2. Village administration in the *sabha* and *samiti* of the Aryans.
3. The Gana Rajyas in ancient India at the time of Alexander's invasion.
4. The working of the Buddhist *sanghas*.
5. Autonomous village and town administration in the Maurya period.
6. Kautilya's concept of an ideal citizen.
7. Religious tolerance under the Guptas and Harsha.
8. The growth of Indian culture abroad.
9. Basic unity in the fundamental tenets of Hinduism, Buddhism, and Jainism.
10. Harmony in social life with an emphasis on certain civic virtues such as tolerance, hospitality, integrity, service and sacrifice for a noble cause.

The Medieval Period

1. Unity of thought in the teachings of Islam, the Bhakti school of Hinduism, and Sikhism.
2. Autonomous village institutions under the Moghuls and the Marathas.
3. Self-sufficiency and harmony in village life.
4. Short life histories of the Rajput, Maratha, and Sikh heroes.
5. Religious tolerance as emphasized by Babar, Sher Shah, and Akbar.
6. The happy blending of Muslim and Hindu cultures.
7. The work of great Hindu and Muslim saints, emphasizing unity and social equality in their teachings.

8. Model village administration under the Cholas and the Pandyas.

Such a syllabus will give the young student a basic knowledge of his legacy of civic rights. He must feel:

‘And how can man die better
Than facing fearful odds
For the ashes of his fathers
And the temples of his gods?’

These proposals are mere suggestions. The subjects should be regrouped as experience requires.

Another approach for correlation between the two subjects is through the medium of extracurricular activities. ‘Like the cabinet of Shivaji,’ the teacher can say to his pupils, ‘let us have a cabinet for our school. Class leaders will play the roles of ministers, the teachers will be governors and the headmaster will be the president. Similarly, we can organize what is called a Mock Parliament.’

School excursions should include visits to village *chavadi*, town municipality offices, water- and power-supply stations, and also to places of historical importance. The scouts and guides movements, which are excellent exercises in citizenship, may also be exploited to this end.

There are many approaches to the study of history. Sometimes we may begin with the present and go back to the past. Proceeding from the known to the unknown, we may study present-day civic administration as a prelude to understanding the Indus Valley civilization, the Mauryas, and the Marathas. The policy of a secular state in modern India will prove a good starting-point for understanding the religious policies of the Guptas and Akbar. It is for the ingenious teacher to find links between the present and the past.

In conclusion, it is the impressive and inspiring aspect of history which is most important. Why did the powerful Rajputs submit to the Muslim invaders? How were the mighty Marathas defeated by the British? Discussions on such topics throw a revealing light on the shortcomings of our forbears and teach important lessons for our use today.

S. S. PATKE

Book Reviews

Secondary Education, Vol. VII, No. 2 (Ministry of Education, 1962), 9½" × 7¼", pp. ii + 58, 75 np. (annual subscription: Rs 6).

This quarterly, published by the Ministry of Education, has been in existence for some time. It is a journal which deals with problems of secondary education, and the articles are written by experts in the field.

In this issue the main feature is a symposium on whether secondary education should be selective or 'open-door'. Three writers have contributed to the symposium. It deals with the problem of keeping a class small enough to be manageable and of making education selective. The question of how a high standard of teaching can be maintained if an open-door policy is adopted is also discussed. S. Panandikar rightly draws the attention of the reader to the methods adopted in the United Kingdom and shows that the same methods cannot be wholly adopted in India. India is, at the present time, in the midst of an immense educational awakening of the masses and the author feels that a policy of selective education would be both demoralizing and frustrating.

T. Balogh, an Oxford Fellow, feels that 'educational expansion in India ought to take the form of massive reinforcement of agricultural and technical education and most of the elementary educational expansion ought to be concentrated on establishing self-supporting rural schools which concentrate on teaching co-operative agricultural methods'. He strongly recommends that the chasm that exists between the educated and the rural areas be bridged.

This journal has other highlights. There are some good articles on extra-curricular reading, and the section 'From Teachers to Teachers' attempts to give a brief account of projects undertaken by various schools. While this particular feature is a commend-

able one, descriptions of individual projects must necessarily lose their value for other readers if described in a highly condensed form, as here.

Several pages of this issue are devoted to news of what the Central Government and individual states are doing in education and their progress in various directions. There are also reports of conferences and long-term plans in education undertaken in other countries.

This journal is simply but attractively produced and offers valuable material for a small price.

* * *

S. N. MUKERJI (ed.): *Administration of Education in India* (Acharya Book Depot, 1962), Crown 4to, pp. xvi + 680, Rs 30.

Anyone who has had to collect data on education in India will appreciate the value of a volume which brings together a mass of material relating to education in the different states and at different levels. Some of the contributions are made by directorates of education, others by educationists; most of the chapters on the structure of education are by members of the faculty of education in Baroda University. Despite the fact that most of the statistics relate to the years 1958 and 1959, and though in some instances the statistics supplied by different states are for different years, a general idea of the situation can be obtained from this book.

The difficulties of persuading educational institutions and directorates to supply information can be judged from the chapter on pre-primary education. Here we are told that out of some 1,200 pre-primary schools only 100 furnished information. To comment, on the strength of this meagre information, that 83 per cent of these schools charge less than Rs 5 a month as tuition fees and that the highest charges are Rs 20 a month, is to overstrain the facts. It need scarcely be mentioned

Book Reviews

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that the actual situation is very different. This is a most disorganized sector of education, and any additional information about it is welcome. One can believe the writer's statement that the annual expenditure on pre-primary schools rarely goes above Rs 200, and often is below this amount.

Although in the field of primary education more is said about 'wastage' than about 'stagnation'—the former being cessation of attendance before permanent literacy is achieved, the latter being lack of promotion from class to class—'stagnation' is as important because it flows from inadequacies in the educational system. It is strange that, with the constitutional ideal of free and compulsory primary education, the writer of this chapter should set down 'uncontrolled fresh admissions' as one of the causes of 'stagnation' in the first year. An interesting statement made by the writer is that 'for the country as a whole the claim that the cost per child in a junior basic school is less than for a non-basic school is statistically substantiated'. The very figures provided in the chapter show that in twelve states basic education is costlier, while in six states non-basic schools cost more.

In secondary education the same weakness is found in all schools whether run by the government, by local boards or by private bodies. A compliment is paid to 'proprietary schools', some of which, we are told, 'are really efficient institutions'; but then the majority of them are 'to a certain extent profit-making concerns and have very little educational ideology before them'. What is notable is that teachers in many schools have practically no voice in the affairs of the school, under whatever authority it is run. Even educational societies, which are organized on the life-member system, in course of time degenerate into proprietary concerns, with the number of life-members becoming smaller and smaller and forming managing bodies employing other teachers as employees.

The writer has drawn heavily on the Secondary Education Commission's Report (1953) and is content to conclude with pious sentiments about the necessity of ensuring quality as well as quantity. From his remarks about teachers' salaries and teachers' discontent one is inclined to think that setting up a wage-board for secondary teachers would be a useful service to the cause of secondary education.

The chapter on university education describes the structure of the system in India, while that on technical education discusses the topic in the context of the five-year plans. The discussion of social education is somewhat apologetic.

Besides the statistical section which, as has been said, is outdated, there are contributions on the financial and administrative aspects which round off the survey of education. The main achievement of this book is the collection in one volume of much that could only be secured through perusal of several government reports and personal approaches to the various state governments. For this Professor Mukerji deserves both congratulations and appreciation.

* * *

T. K. DERRY, C. H. C. BLOUNT, T. L. JARMAN and J. S. CARLISLE: *Great Britain. Its History from Earliest Times to the Present Day* (O.U.P., 1961), Large Crown 8vo, pp. 564, 25s.

'Democracy means government by the people, but it has come to mean more than that. Britain is the home of liberty. No one stands above the law; every citizen has his rights. British people have won for themselves freedom of speech, freedom of the press, freedom of worship, and freedom of association in political parties and trade unions. And democratic government and freedom were carried overseas by British people. This was the greatest glory of the Empire . . . the creation in new lands of new communities of free men.'

With these words, the authors conclude their panoramic survey of British history. Intended originally to meet the needs of a one-year course in Ontario's high schools, the publication has been expanded in the present edition to bring it up to date. The book seeks to provide the reader, who, it is assumed, has no knowledge of the subject and is unable to 'visualize the general conditions of life in the past ages', with a general narrative. The inclusion of time-charts, brief lives, photographs and line drawings is meant to leave a permanent impression of the main facts on the reader's mind. Considerable care has been taken to make the selection as broad as possible. The result is that we have here a book which covers the main events and at the same time emphasizes the general current of Britain's development.

Even to those who have been brought up on an intenser study of British history, this book offers an interesting refresher course, reviving much that had apparently been forgotten. In fact, the awareness of gaps in the account is itself an unconscious tribute to the vivid, forceful manner of the presentation. As a matter of fact, the passage quoted at the outset conveys an idea of purposeful development which is misleading. Nevertheless it is a happy concept round which to build the teaching of history in the Commonwealth countries. Another point of appeal in the approach is the stress on the value of the Commonwealth as a group of nations, multi-racial in character, all in varying stages of economic development. But there is

inadequate appreciation of the progress of Commonwealth countries which now enjoy equal status with Britain. The authors observe that the Commonwealth has in some ways weakened as the United Kingdom 'is no longer the unquestioned leader'. Their failure reflects the major problem for the British today—that of establishing effective relations with equals, whether within the Commonwealth or in Europe.

As a general history of Britain, the book takes in all aspects of secular development and, by a skilful compression of the narrative, succeeds admirably in presenting a picture of continuity and growth. By drawing upon contemporary records, both for the line drawings and the text, the authors present a lively account which is further enhanced by the plates at the end, depicting landmarks in English national life that still exist. The authors, being engaged in the teaching of history in schools, have kept in mind many of the difficulties experienced by history teachers and have tried to overcome them. They have treated their subject so that it may be understood, not merely taught and learnt. Here, in a sense, the teaching of history is given a new dimension.

The time-charts relating to each chapter are sometimes awkwardly printed at the end of the chapter instead of at the beginning. Since the book is also intended for the general reader, its usefulness would increase if this arrangement were improved and corrected in future editions.

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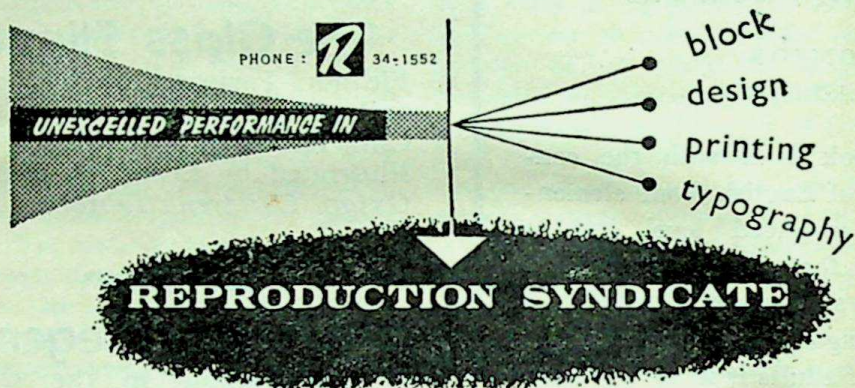
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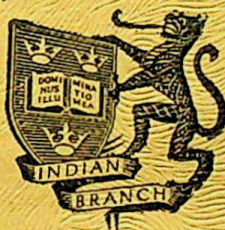
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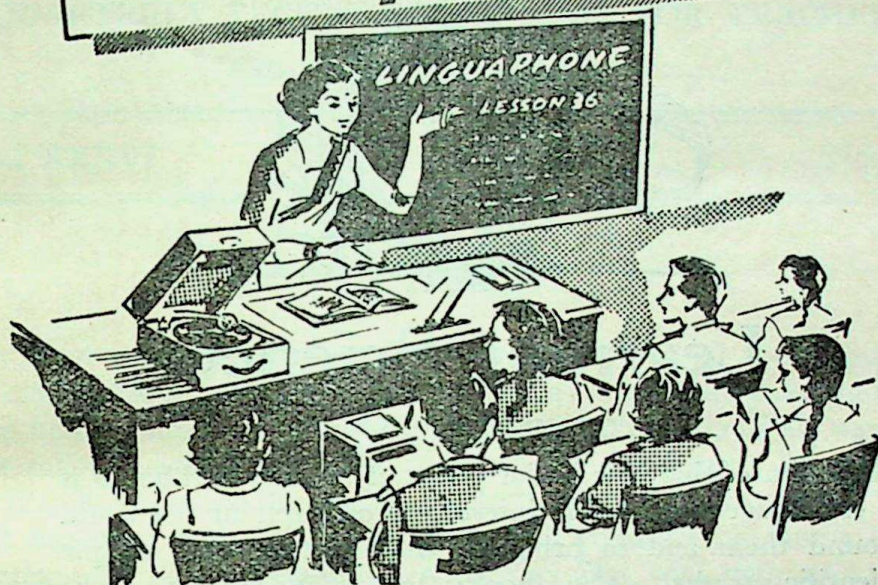
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No. 2

Editorial

THE MOST EFFICIENT ORGANIZER of a school, given all the facilities for making his organization a success, can fail if he does not constantly keep before him two issues pertaining to the education of his wards. The main questions are, to what extent is he preparing his pupils for life, and how are they being taught to serve the community?

It has been said that organization is a good servant but a bad master. We have meticulous headmasters who, with their attention to details and anxiety to make their organization perfect, are lost in time-tables, forms, records and returns, till they cannot see the wood for the trees. There are authoritarians who succeed in keeping rigid discipline, but lose the human touch. Again, there are those who are so busy with conferences and executive matters that they delegate authority to their assistants and do not know their schools. Others are so anxious to please the school trustees or the government education department that they sacrifice their principles for fear of losing their jobs. Some are happy to let things slide and hope there will be no major crises. Finally there are headmasters of vision and humanity who are anxious to run their schools in a democratic way. A headmaster with a strong personality can dominate without tyranny. He can advise and guide without imposing his will on the staff. Such a man can set the tone of his school, raise its morale and inspire the staff without appearing to set up a one-man régime.

However, the problems of organization and administration are not centred in one person. They are closely connected with several other factors which exist in a given environment. These factors form the limits within which a headmaster must operate. His organization must be related to the ideals of the country. In the history of education there are many instances of the ideals and aims of a government influencing the educational system. To cite only one, Germany and Italy organized their schools into effective weapons of fascism.

The administrator must observe the community which his school serves, the population changes in his area, and the types of pupil such a community provides. The curricula, accommodation and equipment must be flexible enough to serve the needs of these particular children. This also applies to the staff, which must be welded into a team if the aims and methods of the school are to serve the pupils well.

Problems of organization are also closely connected with the community itself. How can the administrator succeed in being a co-ordinator of school and community? How can he make his staff realize that not every parent is unreasonable, and how can he make parents see that every teacher is not prejudiced against his child?

The introduction of parents to the aims of the school is one of the delicate duties of a principal, particularly in India. This is the keynote of successful parent-teacher associations.

Vocational guidance is recognized by all to be an important aspect of education. In India there is much talk today of careers and career masters. Vocational guidance is useless if it is unrelated to the economic and industrial set-up of the community to which the pupils belong. The principal must have some idea of supply and demand in commerce and industry. He must be in constant touch with business organizations and employment bureaux.

Other aspects of organization which require consideration are extra-curricular activities, finance, and the school health service.

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The next special issue of *Teaching*, June 1964, will be devoted to Religious and Moral Training.

An Analysis of School Organization

IN RECENT YEARS, organization in the business world has become a much frequented field of study. Governments and those responsible for running large concerns have realized that production is directly affected by organization. Great sums of money have been spent on research, and the application of its results, in such things as working conditions, incentives, plant layout, and everything that has to do with relationships between the people working in the organization.

School organization, however, has received little attention. The reasons are numerous: the production of a school, in educational rather than in purely academic and vocational terms, is not subject to measurement in the same way as profits are; nor does the production of a school provide the same sort of incentive to investigation as profits do. To be of much value, the study of school organization must be comparative, but it is hard to find a criterion for comparing organizations which have so many differing features. Even in the commercial and industrial fields, where commodities are measurable, the problems presented by relationships between people are formidable. In the educational sphere, the commodity itself is people, and this makes a study even harder. By tradition, if not by nature, school authorities are highly sensitive to any sort of investigation into their inner workings. School organization not being a subject of study means that principals' and school managers' knowledge of it is limited to the very small number of schools where they have studied or taught. It is widely accepted that school organization is subject, and ought to be left subject, to gradual evolution rather than to specific design. There is even a lack of awareness that there is such a thing as school organization, and so it is not surprising that there is a lack of awareness of its significance.

What has just been said might not be taken by a prospective investigator into school organization as being very encouraging. I shall endeavour to show, however, that not only is an analysis of school organization desirable but that it is possible, although I do not wish to claim that the method I shall try to outline is the only one, or even the best.

The process of analysis compels us to break down what we are analysing into its component parts. Before attempting to break down school organization into its components we must remind ourselves of two things: the first is the organic nature of what we are studying, and the second is the fact that a school does not exist in isolation. A school is part of society and its purpose is to meet needs which are social as well as personal, educational as well as vocational.

I wish to consider school organization under four main headings:

I. CURRICULAR AND EXTRA-CURRICULAR ORGANIZATION

Under this heading we consider facts concerning the time-table, the variety of subjects and courses and whether they meet the vocational demands of the pupils; teaching methods; the variety and liveliness of clubs and societies; the amount of time taken up by organized activities of all kinds; the amount of free time and the way it is utilized.

II. DISCIPLINARY ORGANIZATION

Here we are concerned with punishment systems and methods; attitudes of the staff towards discipline in general and punishment in particular; prefects and their duties; evidence of authoritarianism or its opposite.

III. ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION

Under this heading we must take note of the allocation of duties amongst the staff, and whether this has been arranged systematically or not; the awareness on the part of the staff of their being an organization; the division of duties between the principal and senior members of the staff; all organizational features not covered under the other headings.

IV. COMMUNICATION—EXTERNAL AND INTERNAL

Here we are concerned with the manner in which the principal communicates with his staff; the nature and frequency of staff meetings; attitudes towards staff meetings by all concerned; the nature of the control exercised by the principal; the principal's attitude towards delegation and his method of executing it; the nature of the relationships between the school (probably represented by the principal) and all superior authority represented by boards of governors, inspectors, and education departments.

Since schools are social institutions and do not exist in isolation, they are subject to numerous environmental influences which, briefly, are as follows:

1. Its own nature: size; financial resources; day or boarding; state or private; coeducational or single sex; religious or secular; progressive or conventional; English medium or mother-tongue medium.
2. The nature of the pupils: age range; background; mother-tongue; racial and cultural homogeneity; attitudes to school; future ambitions.
3. The parents: accessibility to and by the school; attitudes to schooling and to the school; ambitions for their children.

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4. Buildings and property: age; size; location; adequacy of furnishings and equipment.

5. The staff: numbers; average age; qualifications and experience; attitudes to the school, to the principal, to the pupils, to the parents, to their profession and to one another; rate of turnover.

6. The principal: personal characteristics; attitude towards his role as principal; understanding of organization and leadership; relationships with the senior assistant and with other members of the staff.

(I have included the staff and principal in the environmental influences even though they are a part of the organization. This may be illogical, strictly speaking, but it seems to work out best this way.)

The purpose of this article is to show how the organization of a school can be analysed, how the organization can be affected by environmental influences, and lastly how organization directly affects education. In order to clarify my argument, I shall give examples of the organization of two schools, both in England, which were actually investigated in the manner I have outlined. For various reasons, some of the details have been omitted.

SCHOOL A*Environmental Features***1. THE NATURE OF THE SCHOOL**

There are 910 boys and 37 staff. It is a secondary modern school and was opened in 1953. The principal, the deputy and about eight masters have been in the school since the start.

2. THE NATURE OF THE PUPILS' BACKGROUND

There is a strong feeling amongst the staff that the social background of the pupils is unsatisfactory. The boys are drawn from a large post-war housing estate on the outskirts of the city where there are few social amenities. Family life is said to be dominated by television, and the staff complain about both parents being at work and leaving their children on their own. Youngsters can easily get a well-paid job on leaving school, and many parents seem to think that their children could even get such a job before they reach school-leaving age, so that the last year or two of school life is wasted.

3. SCHOOL-PARENT RELATIONS

There is no parent-teacher association, and the staff seem to sense a feeling of hostility and certainly of non-cooperation on the part of the parents towards the school.

4. BUILDINGS

The buildings were all new in 1953 and share a kitchen with a comparable girls' school. There are more boys in the school than it was designed for, but this is not felt to be an acute problem.

5. STAFF

Amongst the staff there is a strong feeling of solidarity. This is apparent in various ways: the unanimity of opinion on corporal punishment, and the general attitude towards boys, parents, the local education authority and the public. The principal is well aware of the need to maintain this solidarity in view of the severe problems facing the school.

6. THE PRINCIPAL

He has been at the school since it opened and is a robust-looking man in his early fifties with a jovial and confident manner. He appears to feel himself well in command of a difficult situation and positively to enjoy the kind of strong one-man leadership which he exercises.

He expressed antipathy for the local education authority largely because of its lack of interest in the school's difficult situation and its apparent unwillingness to be helpful.

He said that in the past he had always preferred small schools to large but that he was now beginning to change his mind. He thought that if you had the courage to 'let things go a bit' a big school would function quite well.

He made frequent references to the orderliness of the school and to the effectiveness of the prefect system he had introduced. He remarked that the school would run wild if he eased up on discipline.

He does no regular teaching.

Organizational Features

1. (a) CURRICULAR ORGANIZATION

The boys are divided for work into an 'A' stream heading for the G.C.E. O Level, a 'B' stream heading for the College of Preceptors' examination, four middle streams taking a three-year general course followed by a fourth year vocational course (recently introduced), and a backward stream. Each of these sections is in the charge of a head of department, and there are in addition subject heads of departments.

(b) EXTRA-CURRICULAR ORGANIZATION

There are said to be some clubs but they do not seem to be active.

2. DISCIPLINARY ORGANIZATION

There are four year masters responsible for discipline in each of the four year groups. Every member of the staff who has had a year's teaching experience is permitted to inflict corporal punishment. The first year master said that corporal punishment was rarely necessary for boys in his year group. The other year masters and the deputy used the cane frequently. The principal had caned six boys during the first half of the term.

During the midday meal the masters sat at the tables with the boys but conversation between staff and boys seemed to be minimal. The deputy agreed that there was a need for closer contact between staff and boys and admitted that many of the boys did not really come under the influence of the school at all.

3. ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION

The principal had drawn up and duplicated a schedule of duties showing exactly what he, the deputy and other members of the staff were responsible for.

The principal and the deputy each had his own room, and there was a head of departments' room as well as the staff-room.

4. (a) COMMUNICATION—INTERNAL

The deputy seemed to think that relationships were informal, but he frequently addressed the principal as 'Sir' in spite of their long association and the fact that they are of an age. In comparison with many other schools relationships seemed to be formal.

The principal does not believe in frequent staff meetings—two in a term at the most.

(b) COMMUNICATION—EXTERNAL

The feeling of antipathy towards the local education authority has already been noted. The deputy stated that policy was determined by one or two strong principals (the principal here accepted this as referring to himself) fighting for what they wanted until the authority eventually gave in.

The Nature and Extent of the Challenge

The pupils' background, the unsatisfactory vagueness of the three-year general course taken by most of the pupils, the views of the principal on orderliness, the staff's acceptance of corporal punishment and the complexity of the disciplinary organization, as well as other evidence of rigidity and formality, all had some bearing on the overriding problem of discipline. The feeling of solidarity amongst the staff is a measure both of the menacing situation in which they

are placed and of the effectiveness of the robust authoritarian leadership exercised by the principal.

Indications that the problem of discipline was under control and that the principal was capable of moving forward towards a more satisfactory educational situation were provided by his remark about 'letting things go a bit', and by the recent introduction of the fourth year vocational course which is a realistic attempt to meet the demands of the pupils. The master in charge of the fourth year metal-work course observed that the boys' attitude towards and their ability to grasp subjects such as English and mathematics had greatly improved, and they had become much easier to handle.

SCHOOL B

Environmental Features

1. THE NATURE OF THE SCHOOL

This is a grammar school about thirty years old. It contains 800 boys and 48 staff. It has expanded rapidly over the past ten years, the sixth form having increased from eight to over two hundred. Boys enter the school at the age of eleven or at the age of thirteen.

2. THE NATURE OF THE PUPILS' BACKGROUND

The boys come from schools all over the city area and some from farther afield, if they wish to take unusual subjects at A Level. They represent all social levels and the one thing that they have in common is a certain level of intelligence demanded by the selection examination.

3. SCHOOL-PARENT RELATIONS

There is no parent-teacher organization, but parents come to meetings arranged by year groups to consider courses and careers. The parents are thoroughly co-operative because they feel that the school is fulfilling their demands for their children.

4. BUILDINGS

The buildings are centred on an old house facing directly on to a side street. The science block is brand new and excellently equipped. There are no serious inadequacies.

5. STAFF

Staff cohesiveness is excellent and the atmosphere in the staff-room was said by one of its members to be little short of inspiring. Staff occasionally leave on promotion—last year one left—but they

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do not leave for any other reason. There seems to be unanimous respect and affection for the principal.

6. THE PRINCIPAL

He is a strikingly competent person in his early fifties. He has been at the school for over twenty years, as an assistant master, deputy, and principal. He talks easily, with humour and charm.

Although the school is obviously permeated with his genius for leadership, which is based on a profound respect for persons, he says that he is only carrying on the work of his predecessors and that the school runs itself with the deputy doing all the work. He delegates with confidence and skill, with the result that the staff are always ready to come to him with real problems, but otherwise have no fear of getting on with their own jobs in their own way.

He is acutely conscious of the importance of organization and of leadership. He stated that the two pillars, without which the structure could not be built at all, are one hundred per cent of the boys in uniform and a completely dignified daily assembly. He would insist on these with absolute ruthlessness, if necessary. He says that the first phase of the school's development is now complete in that it meets the vocational demands of its pupils. The second is now beginning: education in community service.

The principal does no teaching in class, though he helps individual senior boys who need special help. He has delegated all routine matters to the deputy and is himself often away from the school on educational business, both local and national.

Organizational Features

1. (a) CURRICULAR ORGANIZATION

There is a three-stream entry at eleven plus and another two streams come in from secondary modern schools at thirteen plus. There is a great variety of subjects available at A Level and hardly ever is it impossible for a boy to take the particular combination of subjects that he wishes to take. The time-table is highly complex and takes about six months to compile.

(b) EXTRA-CURRICULAR ORGANIZATION

There are at least twenty active clubs and societies which are run by committees of boys.

One of the principal features of the school is the careers organization with sixteen staff members to run it. Not only does it follow a boy up the school, advising him on courses and careers in accordance with his aptitude and ability, but it deals with a host of personal problems which emerge in the course of the advisory work.

There is an annual sixth form university conference at which university staff meet the boys and talk to them about all aspects of university life.

2. DISCIPLINARY ORGANIZATION

The problem of indiscipline has been solved. Corporal punishment has not been used at all for three years and the weekly detention class does not contain more than six boys. The prefects act as a benevolent police force.

The disciplinary tone is set by the principal's insistence on respect for persons, and by the principle adopted throughout the school of always looking for ways of giving encouragement.

Form masters have two periods a week with their classes simply for the purpose of welding them into a more cohesive social group. One form is making a film and another is engaged on a nature-study project.

3. ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION

The deputy takes care of the daily routine of the school. There are the usual heads of departments, and masters are in charge of a variety of activities: careers, examinations, the conduct of assembly, absences, speech day.

4. (a) COMMUNICATION—INTERNAL

A full staff meeting is held a day before the beginning of the year, and one or two more during the year. A committee of senior staff members is used by the principal as a sounding-board for new ideas. Meetings of sections of the staff are called by the principal or the deputy as circumstances demand.

The principal meets the deputy before school in the morning, and after school in the evening, so that they can keep each other informed of what they have been doing.

The principal wanders about the school a great deal and is always seeing staff individually. He sees every sixth former about his timetable and his post-school career. Both the principal and the deputy make frequent use of the staff-room, where they are both welcome.

Various members of the staff said that they felt wrapped up in the school and were often in the position of wanting to do too much in too little time. The principal encourages the staff to look ahead and to introduce new ideas into whatever they are doing. He says that he must provide the atmosphere for growth, and, if anything is wrong, to present the problem to the people concerned in such a way that they will find a solution.

(b) COMMUNICATION—EXTERNAL

The local education authority and his board of governors present no problems to the principal or the school.

The principal has many outside contacts in the field of education because of his membership of committees and attendance at conferences. His external contacts are considered by the deputy to be of great value to the school because through them new ideas are fed into the school from outside.

The challenge from outside—indiscipline and the vocational demands of the pupils—has been met. The challenge is now of an internal nature and is maintained by the ideas and plans fed in by the principal and members of the staff, all of whom seem inspired by an adventurous and forward-looking spirit.

The Nature and Extent of the Challenge

It will be seen that, after examining the organizational features and the environmental influences, we are in a position to estimate what has been called 'the challenge' and to decide if it has been successfully met. A severe external challenge is presented to a school by hostile and unfavourable environmental influences. These influences thrust themselves upon the school and are met, perhaps appropriately, perhaps inappropriately. If, however, these environmental influences are favourable rather than hostile, there are two ways in which the school may react: either it may relax in the easy atmosphere that surrounds it, or it may utilize the surplus time and energy. If it follows the latter course it will be reacting in the manner of School B. If it follows the former course it will simply drift into stagnation and become vulnerable to any unfavourable environmental challenge with which it may at any time be confronted.

School A is on the way to overcoming the severe environmental challenge which it faces, and if the principal is capable of fully understanding what is happening and of modifying his organization and his own leadership to suit the changing circumstances, the school will develop satisfactorily. In a girls' school that was investigated, much of the environment was similar to that of School A. The parents were hostile and the children came from homes where most influences were unfavourable. The principal was a person of intelligence and courage, and she had high educational aims. She had no wish to impose her wishes on the staff, and wanted the staff to co-operate with her in running the school. There was, however—and this was probably not just a coincidence—an extremely rapid rate of staff turnover, resulting in reduced teaching efficiency and

a staff that was broken up into small social groups. The principal and her senior assistant clung almost desperately together, and in spite of her democratic principles the headmistress had formed an inner council or cabinet of senior staff who had agreed to keep all their differences to themselves and to present a united front at staff meetings. The principal was disappointed that her staff did not seem anxious to co-operate in running the school but seemed much more keen on simply being told what to do.

Here we have a school facing a severe challenge in an inappropriate manner. Armies are organized to deal with emergency situations in which the challenge from the environment may be alarmingly grave. A commander of troops, finding his unit surrounded by the enemy and in imminent danger of being attacked, will not meet the challenge effectively by calling a conference of his subordinates and asking them to make helpful suggestions for dealing with the emergency, and then arranging for a vote to be taken on the suggestions made in order to discover the one which has general approval. In such circumstances a leader leads most effectively when he comes to a quick decision and gives orders to his subordinates for immediate and unquestioning execution. (How easily this would lead on to a consideration of discipline!) The staff of this girls' school were exhausted by dealing with the problems created by the severe environmental challenge, and wanted their leader to lead like Joan of Arc or the Rani of Jhansi and not like the chairman of a United Nations Committee. The organization needed to be put on a war footing; authoritarian leadership and a measure of ruthlessness were required to bring about the minimum stability essential for the school to function at all with any sort of effectiveness.

Leadership

Every group has its leader, and a successful leader is one who leads appropriately. No leader can do this unless he is aware of the challenge that he and his group are facing and understands what sort of organization and leadership he should provide in order to meet the challenge effectively. If the environmental challenge is severe and is not being successfully met, he must rally his group to meet it, even using a measure of coercion and ruthlessness, if other methods fail. If he finds that there is very little challenge, that the school is in a rut, that there is slackness and a lack of enthusiasm amongst his subordinates, then he must set about formulating a challenge of such a kind and in such a way that his subordinates will be roused to meet it and even to make their own contribution to it.

One of the most important factors for the leader to bear in mind is the goodwill of his subordinates. He will acquire and retain it

if he leads appropriately, but, conversely, his leadership will only be appropriate if he gives weight to this factor of goodwill. It will depend upon the way he deals with individual members of his group—and no two people can be dealt with in just the same way. It will also depend on how he deals with his group collectively. For example, he must make clear to his subordinate teachers what a staff meeting is for: is it to enable him to obtain their views or to pass on orders, to reach a decision according to democratic principles or to provide him with information so that he can reach a decision? He must consider if a staff meeting will appear to the staff to be really necessary or merely an encroachment on their time. Should he make an announcement to a meeting, send round a notice or see an individual, and what terms should he use? Should he send for a staff member to see him in his study or ask him to come to his home and speak to him over a cup of tea? Or should he go and see the person concerned on his own ground? Would a smaller staff-room iron out a tendency to form cliques? Would some new furniture in the staff-room have a good effect on staff morale? Should he make an announcement to the whole school at assembly or pass on the burden of it through housemasters or class teachers? All these are details, but they are of the greatest significance to a leader of a school community who understands the demands of his role, and is sensitive to personal needs and relationships.

In all this the leader must keep in mind the ultimate aims. Supposing that all energy is not required for dealing with a menacing challenge and that there is a substantial reserve left over after the minimum demands have been met, the leader must adjust the tone of his organization, the quality of his leadership, to satisfy as far as he can the vocational and the educational demands of his pupils.

Vocationally the aim is a skill; educationally the aim is maturity. In teaching a skill the method used has an educational significance, apart from whether it is effective in imparting the skill. In an authoritarian society, democratic methods are disruptive; in a society with democratic principles, authoritarian methods are frustrating. If the leadership is authoritarian, then the disciplinary tone will be authoritarian; if the leadership is democratic, then the disciplinary tone will be democratic. It is not possible to encourage in children the development of alertness, spontaneity, tolerance, inventiveness, self-reliance, initiative, a sense of responsibility and so on, if the leadership tends to be ruthless and coercive. If the leader feels that ruthlessness and coercion are necessary, he will use them at the expense of sacrificing what can only flourish under a different régime.

The leader and those responsible for appointing him must be aware of all this. The leader must be clear about his aims. He must be able to assess the challenge confronting himself and his group, and if there is an absence of challenge he must be capable of formulating one. He should be able to adapt his leadership—though there are limits that a person may not be expected to exceed—and to adjust his organization in accordance with both aims and challenge. This demands an awareness of all that, in this article, I have attempted to show can and should be done.

MICHAEL VODDEN

The Indian Public Schools

A GOOD DEAL OF CRITICISM has been levelled at public schools in the last three decades. Yet, strangely, many '*sainik* schools', which aim at the same type of education, have lately been started all over the country by the Government of India. It appears that public schools will continue to exist and exert influence as long as there are people who want to, or can afford to, send their children to them.

Origins

The Doon School, founded at Dehra Dun in 1935, was the first Indian school to be organized on public school lines. But before that there were a number of chiefs' colleges in India. These were founded in the second half of the nineteenth century under the aegis of the Political Department of the Government of India to educate the sons and relatives of the ruling princes. Endowments were made by the rulers of states, and many of them were represented on the governing councils of the colleges. The number of pupils, chosen exclusively from one class, seldom exceeded 150, and income from fees provided only a small fraction of the total expenditure. The Government of India made annual grants, and these together with the interest accruing from endowments sufficed to meet expenses. The pupils were the future rulers, ministers, jagirdars and sardars of their states. They did not have to compete for a career and their home influence made them fully conscious of their privileged position. Academic achievement was a secondary aim. A good general education for the nobility laid greater emphasis on games and hobbies.

With an endowment fund of Rs 14,50,000 collected from the Indian gentry, the Doon School was started. The school was open

to all fee-paying children, irrespective of caste, creed or community. Boys were admitted at the age of eleven on the result of an entrance test. The school, which was to have an all-India character, secured its headmaster and housemasters from English public schools, and was able to attract a good staff by offering a scale of salaries better than that prevailing in other institutions. It had well-equipped workshops, an art and music school, and was situated in very healthy surroundings. The idea of founding such a school was that of the late S. R. Das, an eminent lawyer of Calcutta. Having educated his sons at English public schools, he realized that such training developed administrative qualities that enabled men in the civil service and business enterprises to function effectively over vast areas of the world, often thousands of miles away from the source of their authority. The school made a good beginning and soon had a long waiting-list. Later the school was to exercise much influence on the growth of other public schools in India.

In the meanwhile the chiefs' colleges were facing difficulties. Their method of educating the rich only, and that on government money, provoked criticism in many quarters. The time was ripe for a change, and it became necessary for these institutions to be run on more democratic lines by throwing their doors open to the general public. Some schools changed rapidly, others slowly, but the process of bringing them into line with public schools was generally completed by 1946. Birth and rank ceased to be deciding factors for admission. With this change, the chiefs' college diploma examination was replaced by the Cambridge School Certificate or the matriculation examination of the regional university.

After Independence, the Lawrence Military Colleges at Lovedale in the Nilgiris and at Sanawar in the Simla hills, founded by the government for the sons of British military personnel serving in India, became vacant. In 1949, at the request of the Defence Ministry, they were taken over by the Ministry of Education as state-controlled public schools. In this category, but controlled by the Defence Ministry, are also the five King George's Colleges.

In 1948 the Maharaja of Patiala sponsored the Yadvendra Public School. This institution absorbed the non-Muslim staff and boys of Aitchison College who left Lahore after the partition of the Punjab. The modern city of Jaipur has the Maharani Gayatri Devi Public School for Girls, established in 1943.

Administration

Each of these public schools has a board of governors. On the board are representatives of the trustees, the Education Department, and some of the local officials. The headmaster is generally

the secretary of the board. In all matters concerning policy and finance, the board is the controlling authority. Internal administration is almost wholly the responsibility of the headmaster.

The first step towards co-ordination among the public schools was taken in 1939 when the Indian Public Schools Conference was held with seven members. The delegates agreed that the main objective was to promote the establishment and general efficiency of such schools and to prepare the students for positions of leadership and responsibility in all walks of life.

They also decided to accept the principal of any school in India for membership if his school, after inquiry or inspection, or both, was found to satisfy certain conditions. The main conditions were that the school should be intended mainly for Indian boys of any class or creed, and that the boys were all treated alike; that the school had an efficient administration, satisfactory conditions of service for the staff, and adequate buildings, equipment and playfields; that it provided a course of study for at least five academic years beyond the age of eleven; that it regularly prepared and entered a reasonable number of candidates for a public examination of the Cambridge School Certificate standard; that it promoted all-round development of students, both physical and social; and that it provided adequate medical inspection and treatment.

The Pattern and Organization of Public Schools

All public schools share a common pattern of life, which gives them the vigour and vision with which they are reaching out into a new age. With boys from so many different communities in one school, religious education becomes a difficult matter. But the problem is solved by laying great emphasis on the spiritual union of mankind and not on sectarian differences.

The teachers safeguard against conceit and a superiority complex in young minds. They aim at training for leadership and citizenship. By living, eating and playing together, students think more of the fair name of the team, the house and the school than of individual gain.

The house is the administrative unit and provides a family atmosphere. The housemaster is the head of it, and it is his duty to get to know each boy thoroughly by gaining his confidence and taking a personal interest in him. He sees that every member of his 'family' develops a proper sense of loyalty to the house, and on this is built the greater loyalty to the school and to the country.

Prefects are entrusted with various responsibilities and share the task of maintaining discipline in the school.

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Games play an important part in physical development and character-training. Victories and defeats are side issues; what matters is to play keenly for the team and enjoy doing so.

The desire to serve others is encouraged, and in most schools boys over a certain age are required to do a quota of social service every week.

Facilities are offered for spare-time activities and ample scope provided for self-expression and diversity of interests.

The importance of academic attainment, which was once sacrificed to sports, is now being stressed. Methods of teaching have been improved. To ensure better results faculty meetings are held to discuss syllabuses, teaching methods, textbooks, and the progress of each boy individually in classwork, homework and mid-term examinations.

The aim of education is to develop to the full all the potentialities of character and intellect. This the public school is certainly better able to do because it has definite advantages over the day school, a well-rounded education is easier to impart in a boarding school. But organizations such as the Delhi Public School, which is a large co-educational day school, and the Modern Higher Secondary School in New Delhi, which is a day-cum-boarding school, are trying to provide ample opportunities for character-building.

The Public School Influence

The average secondary school is inevitably occupied with things academic, though many of them now have remarkable achievements in music and drama to their credit. Numerous school societies and clubs also function in spite of the tyranny of time and transport. But the public school, because it is residential, has the whole of life to cope with, a whole range of problems and perplexities to meet. These factors are the very essence of its existence and give it a much wider influence over the lives of its members.

The residential school community must have an atmosphere of freedom and responsibility. Regimentation should be avoided, but pupils must be taught the meaning of organized living. A public school is a busy place, and few boys are found hanging about with nothing to do. This is not merely because the authorities have organized a full programme, but because boys have a wide choice of activities and time is too short to take full advantage of them all. This element of choice is largely lacking in our secondary schools.

A 'good deal of the public school's success is due to the character of the staff. These institutions gather a band of enthusiastic and devoted men, intelligently in touch with social

changes, and completely devoted to the school. They are occupied with the affairs of the school for about fifteen hours out of twenty-four. As a result, the headmaster of a public school receives a constant stream of suggestions from his staff.

One often hears of government or private funds for schools, and scholarships for poor students, but one seldom hears of schools helping other schools. Nevertheless, the Indian public schools have directly or indirectly helped other secondary schools. The idea of a uniform for its students, games for all, extra- and co-curricular activities to cater to different tastes, the house and prefectorial systems, living up to the motto of the school, the morning assembly, the system of punishment cards graded to suit offences, and finally the tutorial system which makes the tutor the guardian of each of his wards, all these have originated from a residential system of education and are now being put into use in secondary schools.

There are, however, more practical ways of helping secondary schools. The public schools, with their superior resources, could let their playfields, science laboratories, art and music rooms to less fortunate schools in the neighbourhood once or twice a week when they are not being used by their own students. Their well-equipped libraries may also be opened to those who have little or no access to good reading. Inter-school debates, dramatics and games may be organized.

Experienced secondary school teachers may be invited to spend a term or two at public schools. And public school teachers should be permitted to associate with secondary schools, where they could help in the process of character-building.

If public school headmasters were associated with the inspection of state schools they could not only help in cutting red tape, but they could acquire a measure of autonomy for state school headmasters to enable them to set their schools in order and maintain greater efficiency.

Equal Opportunities for All

The majority of Indian children cannot afford a public school education and must, therefore, study at secondary schools. These schools should be financed properly and their standards improved, so that they do not lag far behind public school standards. The majority of our children must not be allowed to suffer for lack of opportunity. The Indian public school is not as exclusive as the English public school, which is generally fed by the prep schools. Our public and secondary schools both send up their pupils for the I.S.C. or the Higher Secondary Examination, and they have a

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common goal in academics. They could be brought closer to each other if the secondary schools employed a better-qualified staff, kept their numbers low, and provided ample opportunities for games and extra-curricular activities. If our new Chancellor of the Exchequer gives due importance to education, we shall soon be proud of all our secondary schools. Once standards improve, the public schools will not hesitate to align themselves with the national set-up of education in this country.

DIN DAYAL

Reorientation of Administration in Multipurpose Schools

IT HAS BEEN APTLY SAID that an institution is but the lengthened shadow of a man. This axiom is perhaps truer of a school than of any other type of human institution. And it is specially true when circumstances demand a radical reorientation of the traditional pattern and outlook of a well-established school to enable it to meet new needs and challenges.

Multipurpose Schools and their Principals

The multipurpose pattern of secondary education proposed by the Mudaliar Commission, and elaborated by the Central Advisory Board of Education, the All-India Council of Secondary Education, and in West Bengal by the Board of Secondary Education, demands such a revolution in the pattern and outlook of higher secondary schools. The ultimate responsibility for ensuring that the planner's vision of the multipurpose school of the future is given 'a local habitation and a name' rests with the headmasters and headmistresses of such schools as have already been upgraded into multipurpose schools. These schools have been provided with at least three of the seven diversified courses suggested by the Mudaliar Commission. Thus the principals of these schools occupy a pivotal position in the great multipurpose experiment, which will mark a final stage in the formal education of the majority of Indian children in the near future. Indeed, it is not too much to say that the ultimate success or failure of this experiment in the field of secondary education will depend primarily on the vision, courage, professional skill and integrity of the heads of the pioneer multipurpose schools. Learned commissions may see visions, adminis-

trators and educational theorists may draw up blueprints and lay down rules, experts may draw up curricula and syllabuses and suggest dynamic methods, but the task of making the vision a reality rests squarely on the shoulders of principals. And this is doubly true in India, where, subject to the over-all control of the managing committee, all power over internal administration and discipline is concentrated in the hands of the principal, who tends to be a petty dictator, benevolent or otherwise!

How far are principals of the new multipurpose schools conscious of their determining role and overriding responsibility for the success of the experiment? And how far are they ready and able to assume this vital role and discharge this great responsibility?

A Survey of the Present Position

The author recently conducted a sample survey to explore the attitudes of principals in the state of West Bengal. The survey aimed at reviewing the multipurpose school as a whole. It also set out to discover what steps had been taken by principals in their respective schools. In a short article it is not possible to describe the various reactions to the questionnaire on the theory and practice of multipurpose education. But certain broad features emerge, and on the basis of these we can judge tentatively how principals are facing the challenges of this new venture in secondary education.

The over-all picture that emerges from the answers is encouraging in some respects, but disquieting in others. On the credit side, almost all the principals believed that the multipurpose experiment can be a success in spite of various drawbacks and deficiencies, such as the lack of qualified teachers, shortage of accommodation, lack of suitable equipment, textbooks and furniture. The majority of them also appeared to be confident of their ability to make the new scheme work in their schools. They stated that their relationship with managing committees was good and that they had a relatively free hand in matters of internal administration and discipline. Yet when one makes a careful study of what these principals have done and plan to do in the actual working of the multipurpose scheme, their optimism about its bright future does not seem to be justified.

Reorientation in Attitudes and Values

It is axiomatic that if the multipurpose experiment is to be a success, principals should be perfectly clear about the main objectives of this new pattern of secondary education. These objectives must be studied in the light of the most recent findings in the theory and practice of education, both in India and in countries such as the United States and the United Kingdom, where multilateral education has

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been experimented with for several decades. The principals must also discover the best means of attaining these objectives. They must be alive to the many complexities and pitfalls inherent in the new and untried set-up, and discover ways of resolving the former and avoiding the latter.

The questionnaire endeavoured to cover all the important aspects of multipurpose education. The replies and some of the eloquent silences indicated confused thinking about the vital issues. These principals had a superficial and narrow conception of the real objectives of multipurpose education. Most of them regarded it a variation of the old matriculation type of pre-university education. Some were almost completely unaware of the difficulties inherent in this new pattern. The majority did not seem to realize that multipurpose education involves a radically new conception of secondary education; that it will ultimately affect all adolescents in the country; that it is beset with administrative difficulties and human problems; and that any serious attempt to make it a reality will involve radical changes in current values, attitudes, curriculum, methods, discipline, principal-staff-pupil relationships and school-community relationships. Unless these inescapable truths are brought home to principals the multipurpose experiment is likely to be stillborn, and the disillusionment that will follow its failure will be as great, if not greater, than the hopes it has aroused.

Recommendations

The Extension Services Departments, in co-operation with the central and state governments, are providing refresher courses, seminars, workshops and other means of in-service education to educate and train teachers in the modern theory and practice of secondary education. Experience shows that they are accomplishing very little, because when the teachers return to their schools they get little co-operation from their principals in implementing these new ideas and practices. Our sample survey shows that the apathy or active hostility of principals to new ideas is fairly deep-rooted and is the result of ignorance. It is therefore recommended that for the next year or two the Extension Services Departments should concentrate on the systematic in-service education of principals of multipurpose schools. Unless this is done, and done immediately, there is little hope of the multipurpose schools being a success, for when the principal is inefficient, the health of the whole organization is jeopardized.

AUSTIN A. DE SOUZA

Finance and School Administration in Maharashtra

IN 1956 THE GOVERNMENT OF BOMBAY revised the hundred-year Grant-in-Aid Code. Other earlier revisions had been made in order to make the grant-in-aid system satisfactory and 'to safeguard duly the interests of the Department and of parents and guardians'. But in 1956 the Bombay Government also took the opportunity to stress that 'part of the expenses of an aided institution should be met from its own resources'. The reorganization of states offered another opportunity to the Government (now of Maharashtra) to revise the Code.

Though it is a habit now for educational authorities to reiterate that the Grant-in-Aid Code was started as a means of helping voluntary efforts in education, and that objective still remains unaffected, it would be more correct to describe its present role as that of regulating school education and of imposing the government's decisions on educational managements. The State Ministry of Education, it has been observed, initiates policy through revision of the Code, and the Department of Education sees that the regulations laid down in the Code are carried out. There is little opportunity for departing from the rules, unless the department is lax or careless, or anxious to ignore a particular regulation.

What is now attempted is to force the managements of schools, aided and non-aided, to contribute to the educational funds of the state. Rule 2.2 in the Code categorically states that 'every Management starting a new school with one division each of Standards V-VIII shall deposit not less than Rs 3,000 in cash and for each subsequent standard with one division each an additional deposit of Rs 2,000 in cash; an additional deposit of Rs 500 shall be deposited for every additional division'. A note adds that the provisions apply to existing schools also, which are given five years in which to make the deposit. Needless to say, the deposit has to be made by schools which do not receive any grant from the government. Although in actual practice non-aided schools were also under control, the revised Code makes explicit what was previously implied.

Thus, two points emerge from the latest revision: recognition (by which is meant the right to present students for public examinations, eligibility for grant-in-aid and the right to admit scholarship-holders or present candidates for scholarships) takes precedence over government aid; and, the Maharashtra Government considers education a profitable business since the schools are required to make substantial deposits with the education department. Significantly, no directives have been issued regarding deposits; there is only a vague mention that the Director of Education will settle the details.

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It is obvious that the managements of the depositing schools are not to see either the interest or, so long as they keep the schools going, the capital. That the amount is substantial in the case of established schools is clear from the five-year period allowed for final settlement of this account; that the larger schools, whose pupils are drawn from the middle classes, will be affected most is also obvious.

Allowing for the many exemptions and bypaths for intrigue and pressure in Rule 13.1, which sets the maximum number of students in the lower classes at 40 and the higher at 44, the size of a division is around 50, and this itself is an index to the size of the deposit. Incidentally, it is strange that the optimum size of a class, ideal for both pupil-teacher relations and space, should be so flexible. One would have thought that since the new schools in the state of Maharashtra are less well developed educationally and administratively, the revised Code would have fixed the optimum; or, at any rate, allowances for extra admissions should have been left to the discretion of the principal. In view of the frequent references to the need for discipline, the first essential surely is that no outside influence should be exerted, or even suspected of being exerted. This, however, is a larger question which existed before the revision, and will persist until a better appreciation of democracy prevails.

The imposition of a levy on new schools and its application to existing schools is not intended to ensure responsibility in education. The Department of Education has sufficient powers and does not need to burden education financially. The implication of the levy is that the nature of the grant-in-aid system is being basically altered, and that any institution teaching from Standard V onwards has sufficient resources to make the deposit required. Let it be remembered that the original concept was that a management should raise part of the necessary funds but would require assistance from the government. This was a measure to *encourage* private effort, and it succeeded in the old state of Bombay. The revision is meant to discourage new schools and, it might be said, to hamper the old ones. The old system was devised by educationists; the present one by bureaucrats. This is the culmination of a steady process by which school managements have been required to 'show cause' for everything they wish to do. For instance, a new school must prove that it is serving a real need in a particular area and not competing with an existing institution. This is hardly a policy which lives up to the Constitution's promise to provide free education for all children between six and fourteen years of age.

S. NATARAJAN

Organizing Schools for Growth

DOES THIS SCHOOL GROW? This was a question posed by an inspector on his visit to a school. During the course of the inspection the headmaster replied to the question by enumerating quantitative increases in the strength of the staff and students, in floor space, furniture, library books, maps, charts and other teaching aids. The statistical facts and figures were noted in the administrative reports. They were also examined and found to be correct. But the question remained unanswered. Ultimately both the headmaster and the inspector wondered if the school was organized for growth.

The Concept of Organization

Organization is related to the growth of a school. It is a process aimed at achieving an integrated result. Often particular items of the educational system are considered individually. There may be a need for a library or a laboratory; or the emphasis may be on staff, students, space, discipline or teaching aids. But the total impact of these items on the growth of the school is seldom considered. Organizational agencies may increase structurally and numerically without a concomitant functional or qualitative growth.

Growth results from interaction. The total improvement of the school is our goal, and this requires a positive direction and a vital spirit.

There is a craze for placing orders and adding to stores and stocks of everything. The essence of school organization seems to lie in obtaining quotations and incurring expenses. Organizational responsibility consists of regulating records, filling forms, and observing formalities of audit and accounts. It is true that there has been an increase in the number of pupils. The developmental trend has released more funds, and there is great hope and interest in the future of our schools. But materials and abilities are used in an unrelated and ineffective manner.

It is not an organizer's job to merely conform to a certain routine. His is a dynamic role, and he must utilize and exploit aids, equipment and other materials for the purpose of growth. The potentials of these materials are a challenge to his capacity. He and his colleagues are therefore involved with the fulfilment of emerging needs, which in turn create new needs. Thus organization becomes a continuous process of achieving and furthering growth.

Some Examples

A few examples may be cited to illustrate how schools are organized for growth. The arrival of a new book in the library is not merely an addition to the collection. A new book should provide a fresh

reading experience, and it should be so introduced to the pupils that they will want to read more on the same or allied subjects. The teachers must constantly encourage pupils to use the library, and the blackboard, posters and charts should be used to illustrate what they read. This involves the full use of existing aids and improvisation where necessary. The true test of all aids is, do they vitalize teaching? Are they in constant demand? Let us consider a chart on the cultural unity of India. It should be bought not because it decorates a classroom, but because it is effective in the teaching of social studies. It may also lend itself to a suitable topic in composition. Debates and group discussions may be centred on the chart, and if properly used it will certainly create a need for books on our cultural heritage.

As a third example let us consider alterations made to the school building. An increase in the number of students makes a direct impact on staff and accommodation. The teaching staff is increased, so is the floor space. An additional common-room or classroom is thus a necessity. This undoubtedly relieves congestion, and the freedom thus enjoyed by teachers and pupils releases more energy. But is there increased responsibility? Redirecting the energy of the pupils is a new challenge to the teachers. The best use of additional space creates other problems. Only creative minds can benefit from advantages newly won.

The Perspective of Growth

Changes in the staff are necessary for various reasons. Old members cease to function due to transfer or retirement. When new members are appointed the strength of the staff may remain the same or it may be increased. But a change of any sort affects the school, and when a new appointment is made the chance to reorganize if necessary should be taken.

Once a headmaster who joined a new school on transfer wanted to make his presence felt. He was anxious to introduce some noticeable change. He felt that new equipment would serve his purpose. There was no money, but the little left for repairs was utilized for reducing the height of all the cupboards in the school by two inches!

Each school must lay down its own pattern of growth, bearing in mind its past, present and future. Organization is a tool in the hands of the teacher. What does he want and why? The choice between a projector and a pump may determine the spirit of co-operation among the staff, students, and society. Organization is, therefore, growth in action. Quantity merely provides an impetus for improvement in quality.

S. NATH

Educational Publishing in India

FIFTEEN YEARS AGO there was nothing of any importance that could be described as educational journalism in India. Those who wrote on education were educationists temporarily diverted from their specialized interests into more general ones. There was no special field for the writer who could bring educational theory to the common reader; there was no particular scope for one who, understanding educational organization and experiment, could express these in the language of teachers, parents, and that large public which is interested in education without being committed to it. Today that has changed, but not so very much that we can afford to neglect this new field of specialization.

Lack of Tradition

Being new, this field has no traditions. The publisher of educational literature rarely limits himself to this field, for he must also publish works which will bring in higher returns. The educational best-seller is a rarity, barely heard of in India, for schools and colleges are reluctant buyers of educational publications for their libraries.

Even if a publisher concentrated wholly on educational works, it is doubtful that he would receive enough material from Indian writers to occupy his organization. For where such writing exists at all, it is mainly in English, and as the years go by this language will have an increasingly smaller reading public. Teachers who should, for the most part, be potential authors of works on education, are publication-shy. Either they have not the time to write or they have not the inclination. Often they have neither. Harassed by the volume of correction work, depressed by the size of their classes and the smallness of their pay, and above all confused by the disorganized aspect that education presents today with numbers dominating all other considerations, teachers at all levels are in no mood to write creatively. Cynically some of them maintain that those who can, teach; those who cannot, write about teaching!

None of this is encouraging, and an analysis of the situation does not generally provide a quick solution. The potential educational writer blames the situation on the lack of enterprise among Indian editors and publishers, and they in turn blame their lack of enterprise on the absence of publication-worthy material or a buying public. Where do we go from here?

Uncertainty and depression dominate this situation, but they need not be permanent elements in it. Research in education, which demands time and an imaginative publisher, is not primarily what we are looking for today, although such research and the publication

of its results are essential for growth in educational thinking. What we want for immediate results, is writing which will stimulate thinking at every level of education, urban and rural, without being overweighted with statistics.

Milestones in Official Publications

Let us look back over the last twelve years to see how government educational publications have fared. The main economic problem has been obviated here, for presumably a government has all the money that is required for an undertaking which it considers necessary.

Because their ventures must usually be accounted for to the public, governments move slowly, cautiously, and as far as possible on a beaten track. They must have reports first, and reviews of this or that scheme on which public money has been spent.

In 1953-4, a series of educational monographs were published by the Government of India, some good, some poor, and a few outstanding. It was not considered important that these monographs should say all that required to be said on their particular subjects. It was important only that they should turn up new soil, stimulate thinking, and be written by people with direct experience and by those who could make this experience readable. All monographs had to prove a point. Failing this, they were considered no better than a factual report.

Authors were discovered, not easily but sufficiently quickly to yield a stream of good pamphlets. These were generally between ten and fifteen thousand words long, were paid for at the usual rates, which are not overgenerous, and often ran into three reprints in a year. Considering the time, the place, and the subject, they may be called best-sellers. New ground was being tried; new ways were found of expressing ideas. The pamphlets were intelligent, topical and readable. They were fairly well produced for the price, which was rarely over one rupee. Among the more outstanding were: *These Schools are Ours*, *Self-Reform in Schools*, *The Teacher in India Today*, *The Single-Teacher School*, *The Content of History in Indian Schools*, *Teacher's Handbook of Social Education*, *My Idea of a University*, *Student Indiscipline*, *Child Art and Child Writing*, *Letter from Manila*, and *Thoughts on Indian Education*.

In the last five years or so more local journals, notably at the university level, have come into being, but they leave much to be desired in content, production and over-all management. Most of them are short-lived ventures. Those journals that have struggled to survive over the years—there cannot be more than twenty—have done little to improve their content. Indeed, editors have to do

more rewriting on material received, as contributions are even poorer than they were ten years ago.

A Conference of Educational Editors was held under the auspices of the Ministry of Education in 1957, and an All-India Editors' Educational Association was founded as a result of it. Though it still exists, one hears little of its activities. The problem of survival is partly financial, but it is much more one of demand and enterprise. All too often the work of these associations and journals proceeds from the efforts of an individual. On his zeal they survive. They appear to have no roots in ideologies.

Educating the Public

As with the Indian theatre, so with Indian educational publishing, much has to be done to educate an audience. Such an audience exists, but it is poor and must be courted, sustained and enlarged through universities and through state and central government efforts. Apparently few publishers are willing or able to venture anything without a guarantee of state support in advertising or in underwriting a quota of the print order. This, as I see it, is a drawback because publishers must make a direct appeal to the public with some confidence that it will respond sufficiently to encourage a steady stream of good educational publications. More recently, progressive publishers such as Asia Publishing House, Atma Ram, and the university presses, have moved forward in a variety of fields, though generally in science, technology, history, politics, anthropology and sociology, not specifically in education. On the whole, the production of these books is good and prices are not prohibitive. Some of the twenty-five publications that I have reviewed in the course of this year have been thoughtful in content, though not always as well written as they should be if addressed to teacher-trainees.

The public that is to be educated by the compelling quality of educational writing must also be attracted by low prices. It is not easily tempted and wishes, like every other public in the world, to be entertained and not instructed during its leisure. Therefore in addition to literary persuasiveness, educational journalism today must seek to hold by the pertinence of the questions that it examines. The questions must be burning topics for parents, teachers and undergraduates. No one has given us good popular writing on why compulsory primary education has not been achieved yet, though it was a target of the first five-year plan. No one has discussed whether it is wise to embark on such a nation-wide scheme in view of the fact that the millions thus educated must be accommodated in secondary schools, technical institutions, and universities.

No one has yet considered how to avoid unemployment among the educated.

No one, as far as I know, has yet attempted to write educational fiction. Surely the novel and the short story can make a point more effectively than the staid, pedagogical document which has the authority and flavour of the pulpit. We have had no *South Riding*, *Three Cheers for Miss Bishop*, *Good Morning Miss Dove*, *Tom Brown's Schooldays*, *Village School* or *Miss Clare Remembers*. Yet the teacher is more strongly criticized up and down the country than a member of any other profession. I do not think *The Householder* fills the gap. It is a superficial novel about poverty among the semi-educated rather than an authentic account of how a teacher lives. Poverty has always had its champions; but learned poverty has yet to find a spokesman in fiction.

Enterprise is increasingly necessary among publishers, and pressure must be placed on public bodies, government and non-government, for support to publishing. Such activity is twice-blessed, blessing him who writes and him who reads.

MURIEL WASI

Book Reviews

The Parent-Teacher, Vol. I, No. 1 (Parent-Teacher Association, Delhi, July 1963), 9½" × 7¼", pp. 28, 75 np. (annual subscription Rs 3).

This quarterly is a new venture, and the first issue certainly augurs well for the cause of parent-teacher co-operation.

Today the parent no longer considers his responsibility over as soon as his child is admitted to school. Parents are turning to schools more and more to guide them in understanding the manifold needs of their children, as well as for help in disciplining them and bringing them up to be good citizens. Perhaps it would not be wrong to say that this is because parents find their children more of a problem today than ever before.

Parent-teacher associations are becoming more popular in India, and journals such as this will help not only schools that already have such associations but also those that wish to start them.

The editor of the journal admits that this issue is of an exploratory nature. But if the journal continues to maintain the high standard of articles in this first issue, it will certainly be rendering valuable service to the cause of education.

Some of the contributors have the right approach. Muriel Wasi in 'Parent to Teacher' develops a point which should give much food for thought to the average teacher who generally complains about parents. Mrs Wasi says: 'I have a hunch too, that the handsomely co-operative parent is made, not born; and that she or he is made by an imaginative teacher.'

Father T. V. Kunnuknal, who has written a complementary article to Mrs Wasi's, analyses some of the common defects in parents' relationships with their children. He feels they not only hamper their children's education, but cause frustrations both in the child and in the teacher. He points

out the ways in which the professional and technical knowledge of a parent-group can be pressed into service for the development of the school.

Another article in this issue is 'Co-education at the Secondary Stage' by Din Dayal, principal of the Delhi Public School. Mr Dayal has collected the opinions of a few other schools in Delhi regarding this topic. The article 'The Summer School — A Mothers' Co-operative' gives an account of parent-teacher co-operation in practice at the American International School in Delhi. The last article, 'PTAs at Work', gives a brief account of the activities of various PTAs in some schools in Delhi.

The journal is well produced and is a useful addition to educational literature. It is not clear, however, whether this magazine is published by the parent-teacher association of one school in Delhi or a federation of such associations.

* * *

F. G. FRENCH: *Teaching English as an International Language* (Oxford University Press, 1963), 8½" × 5½", pp. iv + 112, 6s.

F. G. French is well known to those who are interested in teaching English to children. Here is a valuable addition to the other books he has written on the same subject. This is specially true because, in India today, we cannot have too much readable and practical advice on the successful teaching of English to non-English-speaking children.

The intention of this book, as the author says, is a practical one, with sufficient theory and argument to justify the practices recommended. He has succeeded in preserving this aim throughout the book, and is fully aware of the limitations under which teachers have to work. In India particularly these limitations are grave and this book should therefore be welcomed by all teachers who are trying to teach

the language to children whose mother-tongue is not English.

In Chapter I the author discusses the reasons for the study of English. In Chapter II he deals with the structure of the language. This should prove a very useful chapter to those who are trying out the sentence-pattern and the structural approach.

The substitution table is a powerful device. In Chapter III the author gives us several examples, and these can be effectively used by the teacher as models for constructing his own. The chapter further describes methods to be used in the drilling of these tables.

'Speech', 'Reading' and 'Writing' follow. The chapter on 'Reading' makes a refreshing approach and the author debunks some of the old theories which still persist. He shows how the teaching of reading can be made more dynamic and fruitful.

The practical nature of this book is most evident in the chapter on 'Activity in English Teaching', where effective uses of apparatus, games and competitions are described. The suggestions are simple enough to be followed by schools with limited equipment. An imaginative teacher can draw liberally from these suggestions and make her class take an active part in the reading lesson.

The section entitled 'For your Consideration' at the end of each chapter not only follows up the chapter but makes the teacher think.

The book is illustrated with clear black-and-white drawings.

* * *

GUY BOAS: *A Teacher's Story* (Macmillan, 1963), Demy 8vo, pp. x + 214, 30s.

Happy the teacher who can look back on a long career with as much pleasure as does Mr Boas. After thirty-two years of Headship he can still speak even of Inspectors with kindness and sympathy: '... an Inspector has no home. To be Head of a school is to have both a home and a

family, but an Inspector has only a population.'

The fatherly attitude of Mr Boas to his school family was evidently benign: "What is your hobby?" I asked a particularly small one paternally. "Butterfly catching," was the reply, "what's yours?"

Discipline? Mr Boas soon found an answer to that hoary problem. Citing the case of a quiet and timid young lady whose ability to keep order in the toughest class proved exemplary, he writes: 'I sometimes wondered what was her secret, and after she had eventually left us I ventured to ask a small boy how it was done. "She was very nice," said the boy, and left it at that.'

An imaginative curriculum will help the teacher muster enthusiasm for the subject in hand. 'Everyone should remember,' says Mr Boas, 'that after a child has been taught to read and write and do simple sums the choice of all further subjects prescribed for study is in fact arbitrary. There is no more reason for a child to learn Latin [or Sanskrit], chemistry, or algebra than for its learning astronomy, philately, or chess.'

Even in such an attractive subject as English, paper-setters must beware. Too often questions demand criticism of the set texts, 'which is useless if it is not the pupil's own, and, if it is, is too immature to be of real value.'

'I dreamed last night that Shakespeare's ghost

Sat for a civil service post.

The English papers of the year

Contained a question on *King Lear*,

Which Shakespeare answered very badly
Because he hadn't studied Bradley.'

Setters of entrance papers must also sense a hundred unseen snares, particularly that of ambiguity. 'What is meant by calling a spade a spade?' One answer from a Boas boy was: 'This means it's no use wasting your time doing useless things: even if you call a spade twice, it won't come.'

It is unfair, but irresistible, to pull so many of the plums out of this wise and witty book. Guy Boas has been for years a contributor to *Punch*, and is lynx-eyed for the punch-line. I think he has it in this little story of how acceptable to the average child school life can be made to be. A small boy, just arrived at boarding school, sits down to write his first letter to his mother: 'Dear Mrs Whitcombe. I like school much better than home. . . .'

* * *

DOROTHY HARPER: *Isotopes in Action* (Pergamon Press, 1963), Crown 8vo, pp. 172, 12s. 6d.

We live in a nuclear age. With the advent of television, the atom bomb, travel into space, and many other new inventions, our lives are becoming more complicated and exciting. The various aspects of these inventions affect our lives. Even the five-year plans stress the growth of nuclear power. Yet these fields of science, which form the basis of much of our thinking, remain outside the scope of school science. The citizens of tomorrow are being brought up in ignorance of the issues in which they will be expected to exercise responsibility and make vital decisions. Secondary school syllabuses in India do not make enough provision for a thorough understanding of elementary ideas about atoms and other related fission topics. A progressive science teacher feels the need for this, however, and tries to fulfil the need by first motivating his pupils and then supplying them with good supplementary reading material.

This book, published in the physics division of the series entitled the Commonwealth and International Library of Science, Technology, Engineering and Liberal Studies, will serve the purpose of such teachers. It will not only be a valuable source of information to pupils and young teachers, but provide inspiration for experienced teachers.

The first three chapters are mainly historical. In the first chapter on 'Discovering the Atom' the author shows how ideas about the atom have been continuously changing through the centuries. The second chapter on 'Discovering the Nucleus' explains how the study of radioactivity and radioactive elements led to the discovery of the nucleus. The third chapter is mainly devoted to radio-isotopes—their production, properties, behaviour, and their dramatic use as tracers. The last four chapters give an interesting account of the application of radio-isotopes to the fields of medicine, agriculture, industry, and geology.

This book is full of clear line-drawings and photographs. The most striking feature is the simplicity with which several intricate points about isotopes have been explained and illustrated. It will, therefore, appeal equally to high school students and laymen interested in modern scientific progress. There is no doubt that this fascinating story of isotopes in action can create an appreciation for phenomena connected with nuclear power, and give the pupil some idea of the challenge that the future holds for him and his generation.

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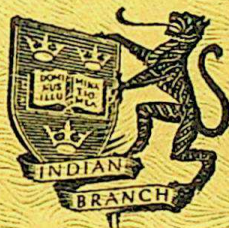
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TEACHING

A QUARTERLY TECHNICAL JOURNAL
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MARCH 1964

VOLUME XXXVI

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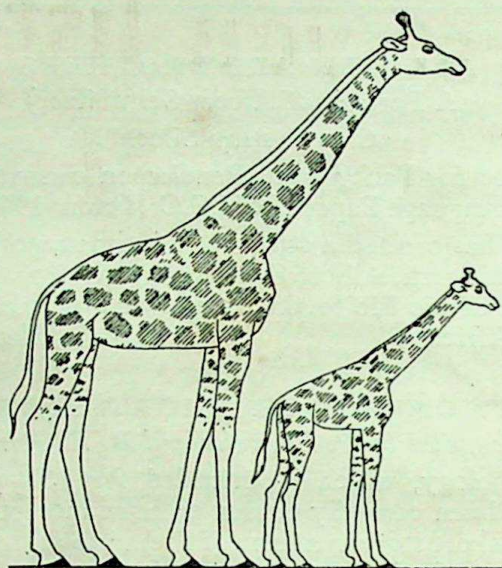
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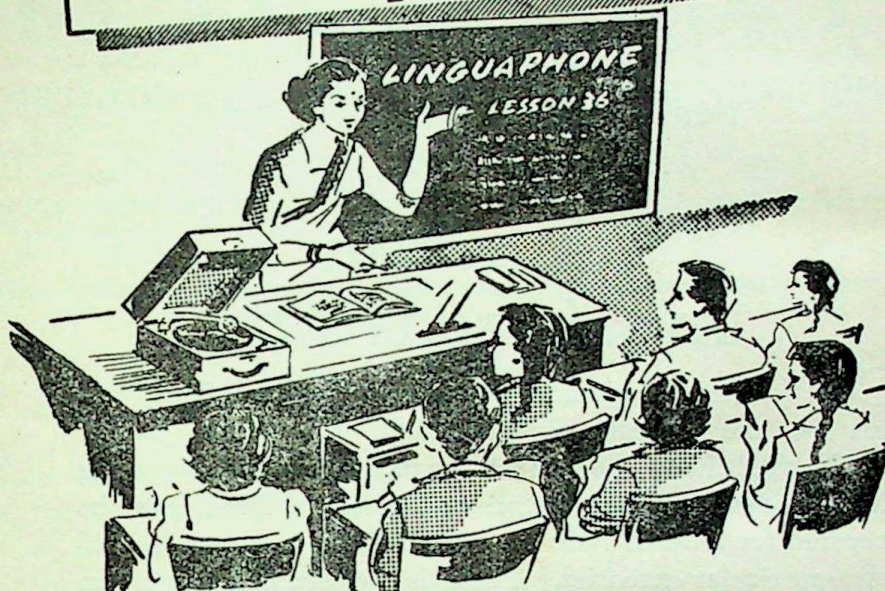
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Editor: MARGARET BENJAMIN

VOL. XXXVI

MARCH 1964

No. 3

Editorial

THE June issue of TEACHING will be a special one on Religious and Moral Instruction in Schools. Contributions are invited on any aspect of this subject.

The following are suitable topics for articles:

Moral Instruction as a Subject in Schools; Should Moral Instruction Replace Denominational Teaching?; Religion as a Constructive and Destructive Force in Schools; Religious Teaching in a Secular State; Training Teachers in Moral and Religious Instruction; The Morning Assembly Worship Session; Religion and Science; Elementary Knowledge of Comparative Religions in the High School; Should Teachers Practise what they Preach?

School Organization and Administration

General Considerations

THE GENERAL ORGANIZATION of the educational system and of the various levels of education is subject, in each country, to certain conditions dictated by the political Constitution of that country. The pattern of school organization and administration in centralized countries differs from that in countries where the federal principle prevails. In a centralized country, such as France, the Minister of Education deals with all general and particular problems arising in any part of the national territory and the same laws and regulations are applied throughout the country. Whether it be a question of

the structure of education, the professional training and salaries of teachers, curricula, school inspection, examinations or holidays, there are specific ministerial instructions on the matter which limit to an extent the freedom of school principals and teachers and make it more difficult to take regional and local needs and particular ties into consideration.

In countries forming a confederation of States and in those which leave the regional and local authorities some degree of independence in matters of education, the situation is quite different. The central authority lays down the general principles to which all must adhere, but the local authorities are allowed to apply them in their own fashion. In Switzerland, for instance, the 25 States of the Confederation are sovereign in matters of public education, the Federal Constitution merely stipulating that education is compulsory for all and that all children must be able to attend the public schools, without any kind of restriction on their freedom of conscience and belief. The duration of compulsory schooling is not even stipulated. Each of the 25 cantons in the Confederation applies these provisions as it thinks fit, according to its own policy and needs, so that the duration of schooling varies from one canton to another (from ages 6 or 7 to 15 or 16); the organization of schools also differs, as do the curricula; in some cases the teachers are trained at teacher-training colleges and in others at universities; and their status varies from one canton to another.

This very liberal system is the outcome of the country's historical development, and has enabled Swiss schools to adapt themselves to widely varying situations and meet very different needs. In particular, it has, for the past century, ensured conditions of religious peace and tolerance and respect for personal convictions. There are cantons where religious instruction (protestant or catholic) is provided in the schools, whereas in others the schools are non-denominational. However, this system also has its drawbacks. In these days of changing ideas and needs, when for many reasons the aim is to plan national education, decentralization is a source of ever-growing difficulties, with the result that efforts are being made in the countries concerned to devise new procedures that will preserve the basic advantages while eliminating the drawbacks as far as possible.

Acquaintance with Legal Provisions

From the standpoint of the principals who direct the schools, and of the teachers who are in charge of the classes and impart instruction, the foregoing considerations are merely matters of general interest, since both teacher and principal carry out their work

within the framework of specific legal provisions establishing the widely varying conditions under which that work is done.

The differences, however, appear less sharp at the 'operational' stage. Whether the educational system is centralized or not, all principals and all teachers have much the same duties, the discharge of which calls, on their part, for much the same knowledge and teaching practices.

Incidentally, it should be noted that in urban schools which have a variable number of teachers taking classes of children of the same age, all working under the same principal, the teaching practices are different from those employed in rural schools, where there is usually only one teacher for all the children of school age. The first requirement for principals and teachers, in rural or urban schools, is to be clear about their prerogatives, rights and duties, and the exact scope and limitations of their action or initiative. In short, they have to be thoroughly conversant with the various provisions (laws and regulations, instructions and directives) with which they have to comply.

Principals and teachers are State officials on whom a portion of the State's authority devolves. In exercising this authority, they must be fully alive to what they are about, for it has been delegated to them with clear intent—to contribute to the intellectual, moral, social and civic education of their young charges.

How, then, can children and adolescents be made aware of their duties as tomorrow's citizens, as an integral part of a community where each is conscious of his rights and obligations, unless those responsible for education set the right example by their behaviour, showing that those who must enforce the law comply with it in the normal course of their professional activity?

Prospective teachers rarely acquire this exact and detailed knowledge of the official provisions governing the teaching profession while they are undergoing training. It is important, therefore, for young teachers and new principals to acquire this knowledge themselves, for it is necessary not only in the school itself, in their day-to-day work, but also in their relations with the outside world, particularly with parents and the school authorities. Principals and teachers must always be able to justify their actions and decisions by reference to legal provisions, for it is the best way of avoiding mistakes, difficulties and even disputes.

In several countries, education officials are required to keep up-to-date files of these official provisions which they can readily consult in case of doubt or need, the filing system being worked out to suit individual needs and permit easy reference to any item required. This procedure cannot be too strongly recommended as a safeguard in action.

Directing a School

The concept of a school director's duties is not the same in all countries. In some, the principal is in charge of all members of the teaching staff and supervises their administrative and educational activities. He may be said to perform the function of an inspector. In others, he has solely administrative prerogatives: he runs his own class and is also responsible for the smooth running of the school in general, for good order, discipline, punctuality on the part of teachers and pupils and other administrative matters.

In either case, he must never forget that the authority vested in him can only be effectively and satisfactorily discharged when it is backed by the prestige conferred by his personal worth and the example he sets his assistants and subordinates. The latter then have a sense of obligation towards him.

A good school principal should make it his aim to maintain a spirit of harmony and zest for work at his school and will therefore need to enlist the co-operation of his staff in the performance of his duties, for the general atmosphere of the school and individual morale will depend on whether they are satisfactorily carried out. He should be a leader and inspire those under him, making it easier for each to discharge his individual obligations.

Such an attitude has lasting and positive results, for it has a beneficial effect on discipline throughout the school. There is no question but that pupils behave very much better when they see and feel that principal and teachers are united, and work hand in hand. On the other hand, difficulties will soon occur and the person responsible will in all probability be the first to suffer if there are differences in outlook, if disputes arise and each retires selfishly into his own shell and refuses to co-operate.

The teacher in the one-teacher village school is spared these problems of numbers, of controlling a mass of school children in large school buildings, which willy-nilly oblige him to introduce and enforce strict rules, particularly in relation to the movements of the children and their supervision; such rules put limits on the authority and disciplinary resources of any teacher, for he is obliged to accept them if he is to maintain good order in general.

The rural teacher is on his own, and this solitude often weighs on him, but he is much freer than his urban colleague to organize his work and his relations with his pupils in the way that suits him. Subject to the legal provisions referred to above, he is his own master. On the nature of his own working methods and discipline, on his approach and on his qualities, will depend not only the smooth running of the school which is in his charge, but above all—and he

should realize this—the whole scholastic experience of the children entrusted to him. As far as can humanly be expected, he will in most cases be the only teacher they will ever know, whereas most of their counterparts in the towns change teachers every year.

Classroom Organization

How should a class be organized and managed? Here again there is a paradox similar to that referred to above. So far as daily work and personal responsibility are concerned, urban and rural teachers both have similar problems to solve; their ways of solving them may differ but the starting-point is the same—the fact of having children to instruct and educate.

(a) Working Conditions—the Class

Firstly, both have to accommodate themselves to the background of their work; namely the class they have to teach and the equipment available.

Irrespective of whether the classroom in which the teacher is to live and work is one of a number of pleasant rooms in a school building, or nothing more than a slightly built and unpretentious structure on its own, or even something as primitive as a covered space in which the pupils and teacher are sheltered from sun and rain, the teacher has no option but to put up with what exists and make the most of it.

In cases where the teacher has everything to hand, he will probably have no liberty to arrange his own 'workplace' as he wishes; where, on the contrary, he has the bare minimum, he can give rein to his initiative and inclinations. The rural teacher, in particular, will not fail to associate pupils and parents with the highly educational enterprise of managing the class so as to facilitate its work, put all those concerned at their ease, and give everyone, young and old, the happy feeling of having helped to fit out *their* school.

Work is well done only when it is done with a glad heart. However modest, poor or inadequate the premises used as a classroom, they can be made agreeable at little cost.

First, it should be clean. Training in hygiene and cleanliness are too necessary and important everywhere to permit of a school where the teachers do not do their utmost to inculcate those principles in the pupils; and the best way of doing so is by setting the example and creating habits so solidly anchored that they become needs. Next, there must be order, for fruitful work and lack of order are incompatible. And with order and cleanliness, a touch of beauty becomes indispensable: a few flowers, a picture or two if they can be obtained or some of the best drawings or paintings by the children

themselves. A classroom which is clean, orderly and embellished speaks eloquently in favour of the teacher and his conception of his role as educator.

In some countries the teacher has to make a detailed inventory of the premises and equipment when he takes over. This practice is highly commendable: first, it ensures that responsibilities are clearly established should there be any risk of accident resulting from the defective condition of the classroom, its furniture or surroundings; and secondly, it gives the teacher an opportunity of making his findings known in due form to the responsible authorities and of requesting supplies or replacements in respect of any officially prescribed teaching materials which are lacking or in poor condition.

This full and complete inventory—conditions and furnishings of the premises; teaching material for the teacher (pictures, maps, collections) and for the pupils (textbooks, copybooks, pens and pencils); administrative documents (texts of laws and regulations, school register, curriculum or teaching programme)—involves careful and conscientious work, and is essential. The teacher, to whose orderly spirit it bears witness, will carefully keep his own copy and send another to the competent authority, which may be the local administration or the inspector of the district in which the school is situated.

(b) Teaching Material

The compilation of the inventory will have given the teacher an exact idea of the nature and amount of the teaching material available for his lessons, and he will be able to satisfy himself that he is well equipped or, conversely, that he is not.

True, there is an essential minimum without which proper teaching is extremely difficult, but the teacher should not thereby be discouraged—rather the contrary. He is now free to show his ingenuity in obtaining, by his own means, the material he lacks and needs. Pebbles, leaves, flowers, fruit and bits of wood collected in the neighbourhood are all means whereby the rudiments of arithmetic can be acquired, operationally so to speak. Daily observations of the time of appearance or disappearance of the sun, recorded on a sheet of paper, will illustrate the duration of sunshine during the year. If a thermometer is available, temperature readings at different times of the day and at different seasons of the year will provide useful data about the climate and, by providing a better knowledge of the area in which the pupils live, make the teaching of the geography of other countries more vivid. It is easy, in any classroom, to provide a 'live corner' where plants which are easy to grow can be tended and observed. In some schools, the

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development of living creatures can be followed in a terrarium or aquarium, where the development of frogs, silk-worms and other creatures can be observed.

A visit to an artisan's shop will provide a direct illustration of the craft in question, the raw materials used, the tools or machinery needed, and the way in which the final product is disposed of.

These and many other simply planned activities provide means and conditions of work which awaken the pupil's interest and his desire to learn. They provide material for language exercises which enrich his vocabulary and means of expression and create in the classroom an atmosphere of collaboration which can be further developed by music, singing, handwork, hygiene and physical culture.

Teaching material assembled by the teacher for his own purposes is at least as useful, and often more useful, than standard mass-produced material (excepting always, of course, material which he cannot himself produce such as maps, models of geometrical solids or weights and measures).

In so far as his imagination and ingenuity permit, it is incumbent on every teacher to make or collect the teaching material he needs by exploiting the possibilities of the locality in which he lives. His working implements will then be those created by himself and will be well adapted to his teaching technique; and his pupils, familiar with the materials he employs, will benefit, and soon become his collaborators in a form of education in which they are directly involved.

(c) Curricula and Teaching Programmes

These teaching media and materials, whether supplied to the teacher or procured by him, should be used according to the instruction he is required to give, i.e. in conformity with the curriculum or teaching programme prescribed in the particular scholastic centre.

Curricula or teaching programmes vary considerably as regards their conception. Broadly speaking, the former are documents setting out in detail what is to be taught and assimilated for each level of schooling and each subject. Usually, teachers are required to keep closely to them, and their freedom of action is correspondingly diminished. Often, too, curricula are accompanied by time-tables specifying the number of hours a week to be devoted to each subject—reading, writing, arithmetic and the other subjects.

Teaching programmes are more broadly conceived: they lay down the major principles to be observed, indicate the relative importance and scope of the various subjects, but give suggestions and advice rather than directives.

Here again, however, the task facing the teacher, whether he follows a teaching programme or a curriculum, is identical in terms of daily

practice and the exigencies of ordered and progressive instruction. It is his personal responsibility to organize his work in the light of the directives he has to follow or interpret.

At the beginning of the school year, every teacher should prepare his work for the months that follow. Day-to-day improvisation is out of the question: educating children is not something to be done at the educator's pleasure but should be the expression of his sense of responsibility towards them.

The work to be done is easy, but needs to be thought out. Briefly, it consists in the following:

1. For each subject—mother-tongue, arithmetic, geography—the matter to be taught must be broken down into monthly instalments so as to ensure steady progression throughout the school year. It will be useful to make provision every three months, or just before school holidays, for one or two weeks of revision to ensure retention of what has been learned in the period drawing to a close.
2. The monthly instalments should similarly be broken down into four weekly instalments, mapping out the ground to be covered week by week.
3. Lastly, the work should be distributed throughout the week according to the degree of importance attached to the subject and to the extent or complexities of the material involved.

As will be realized, this is a general framework, a guide giving the teacher assurance in the pursuit of his task, and leaving him free to make changes in full knowledge of their consequences.

These breakdowns are an essential guarantee of orderliness in the work, and the greater the attention paid to orderliness, the greater will be the effect on the behaviour of the children.

Hence the teacher will be well advised to time the lessons in the basic subjects—religious instruction, mother-tongue, arithmetic—at the same hour each day, keeping the morning for those subjects calling for a higher degree of attention from pupils and using the afternoon for those which allow for a greater measure of relaxation and leave the pupil more freedom—drawing and handwork, for example. Here again this is a broad outline which needs to be adapted to each specific case according to the external factors of climate, time of year, scholastic situation, etc.

In the one-teacher village school, the planning of the use of time presents considerable difficulties, for it involves the simultaneous instruction of children of different ages in different subjects. This is a problem of instructional technique obliging the teacher to confine his actual teaching to the most fundamental points.

(d) Preparation of Lessons

No lesson should ever be given without the teacher having considered what form it ought to take and what results he wants from it: How am I to present the subject? How am I to tackle it so that the children are interested, and understand me and assimilate what I am about to teach them?

It is obvious, first of all, that the teacher must have a perfect grasp of his subject. When necessary, his first duty is to refresh and amplify his own knowledge. Thereafter he will assemble the necessary documentation, prepare the teaching material he will need and put on the blackboard any texts and drawings he requires.

He should also painstakingly prepare the questions he intends to ask his pupils and the exercises he will set to check whether they have properly understood. If textbooks are available to the class he should likewise plan how he is going to use them. Once these items have been assembled and prepared, the teacher is equipped to give the lesson with the best hope of success.

Teachers cannot be too strongly advised to carry out, after the day's work, a kind of examination of conscience—'This is what I had intended to do, and this is what I actually did. Was it successful? What unforeseen difficulties did I meet with? What shall I do next time to get better results?' Checking prior intention against actual performance is highly instructive. It is one of the major factors for increasing teaching efficiency over the years.

Conclusion

In this article the material elements—the organization of the class and of the teacher's work—have been merely touched on. They are nevertheless essential for the effective pursuit of the schoolmaster's basic task of instructing and training. That is why organizing his classes and his work is vitally necessary in order that his whole attention in the classroom can be given to the children in the classroom. The latter, incidentally, are not impervious to his example, and automatically follow it. Thus, by organizing himself to give them sound instruction, he is simultaneously shaping their characters by inculcating, through his example and without them being aware of it, the elementary principle which is the basis of all right thinking: whatever is worth doing is worth doing well.

ROBERT DOTTRENS

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School Surveys in Teacher Education

SCHOOL SURVEYS ARE extensively used in the United States for evaluating and improving education. A school survey is usually a formal review 'characterized by the scientific approach to problem-solving'¹, and it aims 'at producing either carefully considered evaluative judgements or important recommendations for future development, or both'². The above statement classifies surveys according to purpose. Three types can be found according to this classification. Some surveys merely evaluate prevalent conditions while others make definite proposals for improvement on the basis of intensive study. Implementive surveys, however, go a step further by creating conditions while the survey is in progress to achieve the improvements. Whether surveys are *comprehensive*, i.e. a complete study of all phases of a school in a community, or *partial*, i.e. a study of one or more major phases, they will have one of the three purposes mentioned above.

Implementive surveys would seem to be best suited for our country which is stimulating social change and economic development. To bring about the desired changes, implementive surveys are based on co-operation. The knowledge of experts is combined with the experience of responsible people in the community. In the United States, such attempts have proved very valuable as catalysts for effective social action.

In this connexion, this writer's experience may help to illustrate the possible uses of a survey for a teacher's college on a village or community basis.

An Experiment

New Paltz is a small village about 90 miles north of New York City. A thriving teacher's college dominates its life. Like communities everywhere in America, the population of New Paltz is steadily increasing. This means that more schoolrooms are needed to accommodate the immediate and future increase in the enrolment of children. Since education is a local responsibility in America, the local community has to take the necessary action. The Board of Education of New Paltz decided to raise the money from bonds to build the new schoolrooms. The bond-money was to be repaid by an increase in the school tax over a period of years. But here was the problem: the taxes could be raised only if members of the community voted for it. Twice—in 1960 and in 1961—the majority of voters opposed an increase in the school tax. This had resulted by 1962 in overcrowding which was temporarily relieved by the

^{1,2} 'School Surveys', *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* (The Macmillan Co., 1960), p. 1211.

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shift system ('split sessions'). Something had to be done to break the impasse.

The only democratic manner in which this could be done was to 'try to discover how the citizens of New Paltz [felt] about the need for new public school buildings; to gain some suggestions on better facilities for an increasing population; and to discover agreements, if possible, on future procedure'. To achieve this purpose, a Citizens' Committee for the New Paltz schools was formed and decided to get the support of the college in this venture. The Chairman of the Social Sciences Division, Dr Eugene P. Link, also saw educational value in such a co-operative undertaking. Therefore, with the help of two other professors, he decided to put the teacher-trainees to use in collecting the information. A joint session, of the students of all the three professors was held. A questionnaire, which had already been developed, was discussed by the class. Instructions on how to approach the citizens and how to record their opinions were given. There was even a 'simulated interview' in which two students played the role of interviewer and interviewed. This gave insights to the others on the pitfalls to be avoided.

With copies of the questionnaire in hand, the students canvassed the areas given to them on three Saturday afternoons. Every aspect of this part of the survey was well organized: members of the Parent-Teacher Association took the students in their cars to outlying areas; each group of three or four students was given a map of the area they had to cover; to get representative opinions, they were told to interview citizens in every fourth house, and wide publicity was given in the newspapers and on the radio to the news that college students would be visiting homes for the survey.

The information collected in this manner served as a guide to the Board of Education. After taking into account certain criticisms, the question was put to a vote again. This time, the majority—it was a narrow one—voted for the increase in taxes. The survey had apparently made at least a few citizens rethink their attitude to the whole question.

The Uses of Surveys

The result of the voting was one in which the teacher-trainees could be proud of their share. In addition, they wrote class-reports on the basis of their experience. Some of the reports dealt with community attitudes towards educational facilities, increasing taxes and the location of the new school.

The main drawback of this example is that it reads like a success-story. So it must be stressed here that even without any change

in the attitudes of voters, the survey would have served as a valuable educational experience to the students. The second drawback is based on the obvious difference of the system of education in the United States and India. Citizens' Committees, Parent-Teacher Associations, and local responsibility for education are so obviously American that any suggestions for using practices based on these will sound far-fetched.

But the intention of this article is not to advocate American practices *in toto*. School surveys can be usefully conducted by our teachers' colleges within our limited means and to suit our needs. The geographically restricted nature of surveys makes them well-suited for flexibility of aims and practices. To begin with, surveys may have value only as part of the educational experience of teacher-trainees. But, as experience is gained and suspicions are allayed, small implementive surveys can be started. The best way to organize facilities for games for children in a given area and the need for public libraries in a village are just two examples that come to mind. It is highly unlikely that recommendations will be immediately put into practice. But surveys of this kind can provide one important element missing from governmental investigations of a similar nature. They can help future teachers and the ordinary citizens of our country to develop a problem-solving attitude. Such an attitude would undoubtedly make our basic education programmes and Community Development Block efforts more worth-while, positive and influential.

MATHEW ZACHARIAH

Improving Learning and Teaching through Social Studies

THE PRESSING NEED to socialize the individual led some years ago to social studies being made a core subject in Indian schools. Individualism with its motto 'each for himself and let the devil take the hindmost' spelled disaster to society. The philosophy of 'each not only for himself but also for all' caught the imagination of educationists no less than of statesmen at the helm of affairs. In the political field this view of the individual has been responsible for a spate of legislation and other endeavours to secure the welfare of the underdog through social justice. In the field of education a thorough revision and reorganization of curricula and methods of teaching has taken

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place; the existing curricula and methods were found inadequate to realize the new goals. Many schools switched over to social studies from disciplines like history and geography. Social studies emphasize the social aspect and aim at giving the pupil an intelligent understanding of the social forces that affect him at many points of his life; besides, they may inspire the pupil to do his part in making the social environment a healthy one so that it will be conducive to the welfare of society. The individual, while safeguarding his individuality (otherwise he will be a mere cog in the machine as in the totalitarian systems), should correctly evaluate the role of society in promoting his own welfare and constantly endeavour to add to the richness of life around him; in other words he should feel it his obligation to enrich society by contributing to the destruction of its ugly facets and the invigoration of its desirable ones.

The Content of Social Studies

History and geography, while being excellent in themselves, are said to fail to meet the new demands. The old history book chronicled the deeds of kings and great men; but it failed to explain the working of historical forces and their ultimate impact on human life. The old geography was content to provide factual information relating to rivers and mountains, exports and imports and was found wanting in ability to relate these factors to human issues. Social studies draw upon the social sciences and reshape the subjects of instruction with a view to emphasizing their social content so that educational ends may be realized. 'The materials of social studies provide the basis for making the world of today intelligible to the pupils, for training them in certain skills and habits, and for inculcating certain attitudes and ideals that will enable boys and girls to take their places as efficient and effective members of a democratic society.'¹

In our schools, notwithstanding the use of the term social studies, the old approach still persists. If we peruse a textbook of Class X we find lessons on the geography of India and on Indian history. The textbook of Class IX deals with world geography and world history. This has occasioned the charge in certain quarters that social studies are no better than old wine in new bottles. This way of looking at social studies defeats their very purpose; the pupils consider mastery of facts the be-all and end-all of the subject.

There is need to integrate the subject-matter drawn from history, geography, politics and civics around a central unit or topic. For instance, it is imperative that the pupil should realize the value of

¹ A. C. Bining & D. H. Bining, *Teaching Social Studies in Secondary Schools* (McGraw Hill, 1952), pp. 3 & 4.

liberty and form the correct attitude towards it and be determined to uphold it. To realize this desirable outcome, information from politics, civics and history can be integrated under the unit 'Liberty and its Significance for Civilization'. The same can be said of equality. In the lower classes instead of giving geographical information relating to food crops, a unit entitled 'Our Food' may be incorporated and in this may be included information relating to food habits from the earliest times: how food is cultivated; the best way of producing it; and the most effective means of conserving and utilizing food resources. This requires integration of material from history and geography. Such integration will go a long way in eliminating the notion that the two subjects are independent and do not have anything in common. 'All learning, in order to be valuable to the individual pupil, must be integrated. If this unifying of learning is not assisted by the teacher it will ultimately take place in a less efficient and less complete manner through the mental processes of the pupil, assuming that he is capable of seeing relationships in learning and of strengthening them when he discovers them. Categorical learning is retained only as it is applied to allied fields of interest and endeavour. It is indeed a challenge to teachers to facilitate this integration, to assist in the discovering of relationships in learning, and to develop an independence on the part of the pupil in making his own integrative bonds in learning.'¹

Learning is wasteful if it does not affect the behavioural patterns in the desired directions. We are living in a complex society made complicated by ever-increasing scientific inventions and discoveries. In such a society the pupil should be trained to understand the problems of the community, and how to react to them, if teaching of social studies is not to be divorced from the realities of the twentieth century. The writer feels that this aspect is ignored in our curricula of social studies. Such vital topics as prohibition and its socio-economic significance, public opinion and its place, the status of women, uplifting the backward sections of the community, choosing a vocation, healthy public life and clean administration, propaganda and how to resist biased propaganda, juvenile delinquency—all these topics deserve a place in the curricula of social studies if the pupil is to succeed in steering his course through life and developing the right attitudes.

We are living in highly explosive times. With a belligerent nation on our very doorstep, the urgency of international understanding hardly needs repetition. It is the task of the teacher to combat international prejudices and foster world-mindedness in his pupils.

¹ C. D. Samford & E. Cottle, *Social Studies in the Secondary School*, (McGraw Hill, 1952), p. 176.

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As our President puts it, 'As war is the climax of international misunderstanding, so is peace the outcome of proper understanding among nations.'¹ If history and geography are taught as integral elements of social studies, genuine sympathy and fellow-feeling towards the peoples of other lands will be the result. Audio-visual materials, pen-friendships, cultural tours by teachers and pupils, talks by distinguished foreigners and teacher-exchange programmes will in the long run contribute to building healthy attitudes towards other nations. The teacher can be, like the guru of yore, the harbinger of peace and goodwill, if he does not let his vision be clouded by the current political controversies. 'Each country is like a flower in the garden of God,' says Robert Bridges, 'and has a fragrance of its own.' This spirit should permeate the teaching of social studies.

Methods

It has been the experience of teachers that the effectiveness of teaching and learning depend on the methods employed. It is needless to say that the method which does not respect the age, ability and aptitude of the pupil and evoke his enthusiasm will cause frustration and develop cynicism. Progressive education has devised methods which afford scope for the self-expression of the pupil and for drawing out the best in him. We live in a democratic society and democratic education should train the pupils for democratic citizenship. This needs to be always kept in mind by the teacher while selecting the method. It is up to him to make his choice from a very wide range—the project and problem methods, the laboratory method, supervised study, group recitation and others. He should recognize the need to socialize the individual, to bring him out of himself and make him conscious of the needs and interests of others. Towards this end the teacher should make use of the panel discussion method, which promises to develop the qualities of both leadership as well as 'followership'. The oft-condemned 'talk and chalk' method, the teacher monopolizing the platform and waxing eloquent, is still the only method prevalent in many schools. Of course the physical limitations of the classroom, the very large classes and the heavy work-load of the teachers not to speak of the requirements of the examinations which place a premium on the reproduction of memorized answers, damp the enthusiasm of the teacher. Still, given a little more co-operative endeavour on the part of the teachers, it is not impossible to introduce democratic procedures into the classroom. It behoves

¹ Sarvepalli Radhakrishnan, *Occasional Speeches and Writings* (Probsthain, 1957), p. 162.

educational administrators to see that the school has the minimum physical requirements for effective teaching and to provide the necessary equipment for both the teacher and the taught.

The Teacher and other Agencies

Today the teacher finds himself in an unenviable position. He has to compete on very unequal terms with films and cheap but colourful literature. Their hypnotic hold on adolescents is weakening the hold of the teacher and the school. Crude sex appeal, vice and other anti-educational features, especially films calculated to bring in handsome profits, have become dominant in the world of entertainment. Even films with ennobling themes exploit eroticism and whatever educative value they may have had is lost and only the none too ennobling scenes remain imprinted on the plastic minds of the pupils and influence their conduct. Teachers badly require the assistance of the state in this battle for the minds of the young.

The teacher of social studies holds a special place in society. If democratic values are not to wither away and freedom be preserved in all its purity, he should rise to the occasion and instil the democratic spirit into the lives of his pupils. To the extent that he succeeds in this great mission, to that extent shall we keep at bay the forces of darkness.

D. VENKATA RAO

Science Teaching in a National Emergency

CAN SCIENCE TEACHING rescue children and their parents from the consequences of science applied by a ruthless enemy against a civilian population? What is the obligation of science departments in secondary schools in the context of a national emergency? These are questions which every educator and teacher must ask and find a solution to.

Special Responsibilities of Science Teachers

Several special responsibilities can be cited, but it must be noted that these appear to differ from those responsibilities already accepted by progressive science teachers throughout our country. They

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teach their pupils about first aid, about sanitation, about the control of fires, and about protection against X-rays and other forms of radiation. A good science programme in normal times gives proper attention to these phases of a general education. In a national emergency, however, the emphasis must definitely shift to other topics. Science teachers have a special responsibility in a national emergency and must not overlook it. School administrators must see that science teachers in their schools are moving in the right direction and giving their pupils sufficient knowledge to meet the exigencies of such an emergency.

First it must be obligatory for all high school pupils to be well trained in first aid. In some schools this may be the main responsibility of some other department, but certainly the science teacher is concerned with this vital aspect of the science programme. In an emergency such as we now face, emphasis should be shifted from the treatment of snake bites to a greater attention to the treatment of burns and shock. In fact, the reasons for teaching first aid should be carefully thought out. Why certain first-aid measures should be taught is very much the concern of the science teacher.

The science department of a high school must also concern itself with the whole field of nuclear energy and atomic warfare. One of the most inexcusable facts in science teaching today is the fact that many high schools are completely neglecting this branch of science. Physics courses are still being taught with only a passing glance at the field of radiation; chemistry courses are being taught with only a mention of radioactive isotopes; biology courses fail to mention the effect of ionizing radiations on living tissues; physiology courses ignore the effect of radiation on blood cells and leucocytes. This article with its limitations cannot possibly treat the subject adequately, but the areas mentioned above cannot safely be omitted if science teaching is to keep abreast of the times. Science teachers may plead that there is no room in their courses to add anything else, but a vital curriculum always has room for what is needed in a changing, evolving world.

An Adequate Science Programme

A good science education programme should produce pupils who know how fires are started and how they are put out. Disastrous fires in a thickly populated urban area are common occurrences during a war. These will have to be dealt with by civilians—many of them boys and girls of high school age. Do children understand that water puts out a fire by its cooling action, and that sprayed water in most instances is more effective because more water is evaporated

and therefore more cooling results and more control is possible? This is a simple scientific fact, but how well is this concept developed by our science programmes? Then there is the subject of chemical fire-extinguishers. Does the chemistry teacher make sure that his pupils know why a carbon tetrachloride extinguisher is effective against electrical fires but should be used with great caution when fighting such fires in close and confined places? Can every senior boy and girl operate a carbon dioxide fire-extinguisher? What is an incendiary bomb and how can we extinguish one? Many a good chemistry lesson can be built around such topics.

The science programme must also give greater attention to human nutrition. These are times of more and more stress upon human beings, and the strength of our bodies may well be a deciding factor in our survival. Many of us know a great deal about nutrition and yet practise it so poorly. Is not our science teaching programme highly defective when our high school pupils show an unawareness of basic nutritional knowledge?

What fraction of our enormous population exhibits a proper knowledge of sanitation? Those who live in urban areas depend upon modern plumbing to carry away human wastes and have really forgotten the elementary facts about contamination from such wastes, whereas those who live in rural areas have the habit of taking things for granted. What if evacuation of a modern city necessitated the crowding together of thousands of people in temporary shelters? Would we know how to provide for sanitation under such conditions? Do our high school pupils really understand about typhoid, dysentery and cholera and how to guard against them? Suppose the water supply of a densely populated city is contaminated by an atomic explosion. Would we really understand how to guard against the radiation that would result?

In addition should we not teach our high school pupils about the truths and fallacies of biological warfare? Could an enemy destroy our crops and livestock, as well as whole civilian populations? How could we tell if we were being subjected to an attack by biological warfare agents? Again, what are we teaching about the many agents of chemical warfare? What is a poison gas and what are its effects on the human body? What conditions will help to disperse it? The use of gas masks and their effect can be well demonstrated to a class. This subject can lead to many interesting lessons in physiology, biology and chemistry, and varied applications can be made in general science.

Finally, we must turn to 'conservation'. In an emergency conservation becomes even more vital a part of many science programmes. High school students must acquire the habits of conserving our

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natural resources, for our very survival may depend upon a wise use of our forests, minerals, water and soil. Unless we practise conservation more intensely than we have ever done before, we may be in short supply of the basic elements we need so badly.

These are some of the important areas of a science curriculum and their relation to our state of emergency. The science education programme must involve itself in each of these areas in rather fundamental ways if we are to play our rightful roles in this national emergency. The working out of units in each of these areas could be one of the most stimulating experiences which science teachers could enjoy. Every one of these areas is interesting and can enliven a school science course.

Preparation of Specialists and Technicians

There is another phase of science teaching which we must not lose sight of. In a national emergency it is the responsibility of educators to prepare technicians and specialists. The foundations can be laid at the high school stage. It is in our high school science courses that good foundations can be laid for those boys and girls who have the abilities and interests to prepare for scientific and technical careers. This is a responsibility which today cannot be sufficiently magnified for science teachers. We need many qualified men and women with strong science backgrounds. Some of them will be associated with military endeavours while others will contribute to civilian progress. We cannot afford to be in short supply of the necessary skills.

For a long time now 'problem-solving skills', 'use of the scientific method', and 'critical thinking' have been listed as important objectives of science teaching. In a national emergency, these objectives need to be doubly stressed. Science teachers can do a great deal in helping their pupils to think clearly on crucial issues. We do not want to produce a nation of unthinking citizens who act on the basis of prejudices and who do not search for facts when they are called upon to make decisions. We want clear thinkers, people who know how to resolve issues, how to solve problems—how to use the scientific method. Can this be accomplished in science classes? Not entirely, but certainly the science department can help to develop these attitudes.

Science teachers must also not overlook the impact of military mechanization upon high school pupils. They must acquaint their pupils with the new military devices as they are publicized. Our children must know how radar works; they must know what is meant by supersonic detection. High school boys and girls must not remain ignorant of these newer devices of modern warfare.

Developing Right Values

In order to live with the reality of military mobilization, a high school pupil must develop emotional balance. Mental hygiene is not necessarily the province of science education but the contribution of the science teacher is required. The development of healthy, progressive, optimistic young people who understand how they are involved in the solution of our problems is the responsibility of all teachers, but the role of the science teacher needs to be stressed. If the history teacher helps young people to understand the tortuous but positive progress from barbaric times to more humane times, the science teacher can develop belief in the contributions science has made to better living. For every kind of biological warfare, there is an antibiotic for the cure of the sickness that results. For every atomic bomb, there is radium or cobalt which can alleviate suffering. Science teachers and other teachers can help the school-leaving pupil to understand that the world is not entirely an arena of war. They can help him develop the set of values he needs to cope with dangerous periods so that he can face the future with optimism.

Such is the role of a vital science education programme in this national emergency. It is not an easy role to play and not every science teacher or every science department will be able to play it with effectiveness in the coming years. Let us hope most of them will, for then we know we can survive to see happier days.

SYBIL BENJAMIN

The *Gestalt* Approach to the Study of Problem Children

IT WOULD BE a myth to say that a school exists which has no problem children. Almost every teacher in a school has been faced with one or two problem children who cause him special anxiety. These children in one direction or another make unsatisfactory progress in learning and deviate from what is supposed to be average in physical, mental, emotional or social characteristics to such an extent that they do not receive the maximum benefit from a regular school programme and ordinary class-teaching. Physically handicapped children, whose physical, social or emotional needs are neglected, children who are over-protected or rejected by their parents, mentally retarded as well as gifted children, they all indulge in activities such

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as stealing, cheating, delinquency, withdrawal, aggression and other undesirable behaviour and they fail to make a satisfactory response to school environment. The causes of this undesirable behaviour are many. The heredity of the child, home and school environment, all combine to give rise to problem behaviour and hence problem children. Teachers dealing with these children should take note of all these problems and their causes and understand them intelligently so as to be able to deal with them tactfully and give the children proper guidance.

Understanding the Child

When we are trying to understand a child, we have to make a total or global study of him. Through a process of analysis we try to make a total approach. To understand his behaviour we have to consider both the individual and his environment, which are two different things. A mathematician would say we were dealing with two independent variables and state: Behaviour is a function of two independent variables. Have not problem children been cured of their problems by these approaches? But if you aim at a complete cure you have to take the individual and the environment as two dependent variables, and behaviour as a function of the two. This is what the *Gestalt* psychology has to contribute to the solution of this problem. The *Gestalt* psychology speaks of the life space or the psychological field, and it is this methodological approach that I wish to present.

To understand problem children, we must understand their life space, the components of which are (1) stimuli, (2) needs and goals, and (3) persons who constitute the social element. All these play their part in creating problems for the child. Take the case of two siblings. They live together, they play together and yet the world of the one is different from that of the other. Their psychological field is different, except when the siblings are identical twins. The great thing for the parent and for the teacher is to see the world as the child sees it, i.e. to occupy that point in the life space which the child occupies. A father and his three-year-old son were going for a walk. Suddenly the child stopped and said, 'Daddy! What a beautiful flower!' But the father told him not to loiter and thus suppressed the child's ebullience. Again, the child said, 'What a lovely flower!' and this time the father again rebuffed the child. But when he bent down to the level of the child, he was able to see the flower hidden in the grass. The *Gestalt* psychology draws our attention to this psychological field.

All of us are familiar with chalk. Its colour is white and it is a compound of calcium, carbon and oxygen. When these combine,

we have chalk. Science studies the components, but by doing this it makes a purely objective study. Water has the property of quenching thirst and nourishing plants, but neither the hydrogen nor the oxygen, by itself and alone, has this property of water, which is a compound of hydrogen and oxygen. Similarly in the psychological field, if we merely analyse the child we shall no doubt get some knowledge about him, but we shall never be able to help the problem child until we have studied his whole life space. This is the characteristic of the living organism. We cannot take the parts away and then reassemble them. In the laboratory, when we try to break up the whole and study bodily expressions and emotions separately, we are not taking the right path to understanding the child.

Methods of Approach

The *Gestalt* approach to problem children is that there are no problem children, only problem parents and teachers. Here we have, therefore, two extreme views:

- (1) All behaviour difficulties are to be attributed to the child.
- (2) All behaviour difficulties are to be attributed to the environment.

It is under these two extreme views that this problem is usually discussed. We have been taking the analytical attitude to these problems; we have considered only the psychological attitude. No doubt it is valuable, and by making a holistic approach, I am not running it down. The behaviouristic school is trying to suggest the problems and also remedial measures for them. The purposivistic approach analyses the instincts and drives and suggests the remedy in the formation of sentiments. The psycho-analytic approach goes deeper into the realm of the unconscious and suggests that full expression be given to drives and urges. Both the analytic and the atomistic approaches employed so far have been scientific and of great value. With the help of the psycho-galvanometer, we are able to study the pulse-rate under different stimulation and stimulating situations. But after the study, have we been able to understand the emotions as such? That insight, that feel of the whole thing, we find is not there in these approaches. And this is what the *Gestalt* psychology brings to the study of problem children. We must have an insight into problem children and that is possible only when we have an intimate knowledge of their life space, which is constantly growing, whose peculiar nature is dynamic. It is here that the *Gestalt* psychology takes up a very important analogy.

The Gestalt Approach to the Study of Problem Children 87

Let us look at the way the embryo develops. As the process of development goes on, there is integration and organization. In a few days, there is a bunch of cells, and as the mass grows, the number of cells multiplies and they become more and more organized. Starting from the homogeneous unorganized mass, a heterogeneous organized mass develops. In the same way does the mind develop. At first, the child is a buzzing, booming confusion, but as it grows, we find not only differentiation, but integration also. The life space of the *Gestalt* psychology, as it grows, becomes rich in its content and at the same time the content becomes more organized. In normal children, there is a balance between the content—its integration and differentiation. In problem children, there is either too much of integration or too much of differentiation. The world of the child is an undifferentiated mass which becomes differentiated, yet all these clearly differentiated masses are integrated into a whole. This is how the life space of a healthy child should develop. If it does not develop this way, the result is problem children.

The degree of differentiation and integration varies at different stages of development. In the early stages, differentiation is slightly in advance of integration. The child is eager to know about everything. But during late adolescence the process of integration advances faster than the process of differentiation. The child enters a nursery school, he goes to an elementary school and then to a higher secondary school, and each one of these has a different life space. It is in terms of these norms that we can understand problem children. Woodworth, the *Gestalt* psychologist, takes the example of play. Let us concentrate upon play activity with marbles, from which Woodworth had deduced different stages of psychological development. A very young child throws the marbles, slightly older children play with them, but the element of competition is absent. But as they grow up the spirit of competition appears and rules and organized play develop. We see that there are certain characteristics of the life space which depend not only upon the chronological age but also upon the mental age of the child.

Reverting again to the analogy of the embryo—as the embryo develops from the day of conception to the stage of its birth, it recapitulates its entire racial history. Suppose somehow the development of the embryo is arrested, then instead of a human child, a monster would be born. It is only when there is a check or arrest in the process of the development of the life space that there is a problem child. In the life space there is the possibility of regression, i.e. there is a chance of disintegration along with the differentiation and integration that goes on in the life space.

The Gestalt Approach

What the *Gestalt* psychology points out is this. If you take a child whose life space is developing normally, there is a great desire in the child of wanting to belong to a group. It does not want to isolate itself. In one of the rare experiments in the development of the embryonic stage, the experimenter lifted a cell from the region of the eye and put it in the tail region, yet he found that it developed into an eye and did not become part of the tail. The biologist is satisfied with the experiment, but the psychologist is interested in the lesson drawn from the experiment. The cell which was put in the tail region was a dominant cell and hence it took other cells and converted them into an eye.

The *Gestalt* psychology introduces a new concept, and that is, that we want to belong to a group. This desire to belong to the group is one characteristic of the child. Any check or control on this desire gives rise to a problem. For example, a man wearing a hat is walking beside a river, near a tree with several branches. Suddenly his hat is blown off and falls into the river. The man breaks a branch off the tree, hooks the hat and lifts it out. What the man did was to break up the whole, take a part and then integrate it into a new situation in order to solve the problem of recovering his hat. This is one of the characteristics of the life space. This is how learning proceeds and in the process of learning or problem solving, the insight has to be understood in the context of this life space. It is the breaking of the whole into parts, and the reassembling of the parts into a new whole, which brings about the solution of a problem. We are all familiar with Köhler's experiments with apes. The problem of the life space has its conative properties. There is the conflict between the positive and negative drives or between two repulsive or two positive things. It is the choice between these that produces the problems of the problem child.

Then comes the question of satisfying the needs of the child. So long as his need is not satisfied, there is a tension in him. There is a gap, which should be filled. For example, a student is going to college on a bicycle. He is in a great hurry and, because of this, he forgets to post a letter. When he remembers, he does not feel at ease. There is tension in his behaviour. There is a gap, and until that gap is filled there will be restlessness. Every act of behaviour, therefore, has to be understood in this totality.

Therefore this global or *Gestalt* approach is most beneficial in dealing with problem children.

RAMESH CHANDRA SRIVASTAVA

Education at its Best

IN A PREVIOUS article in *TEACHING* ('A School in Orbit', September 1963) I summed up the educational tour of South India of the Vidya Bhawan School at Udaipur in these words: 'This was education at its best ; first-hand experience as a basis for thought and discussion.' But a tour like this has its limitations. The greatest defect was that it was available only to pupils whose parents could afford Rs 250, with the exception of two who were guests of charitable friends of the school. Unless a large number of charitable friends can be found, there seems to be no solution to this difficulty. In a total of over 200 in classes VIII to XI, only 34 were able to share this great experience.

The questions must therefore be asked, 'Can some of the superlatives of touring be brought within the reach of all? Can the magical qualities which we found at large on our wanderings be captured, and nurtured in the classroom?' In this article I intend to discuss to what extent this may be attempted, in both the vocational and the social aspects of education.

In our tour, the most important feature was the wide variety of our visits. The pupils met and talked with engineers, doctors, fishermen, social workers, agricultural workers, all serving the country in their own ways. This is the essence of vocational education, as these contacts give the pupil's ambitions a definite direction at an early age, and an impetus which will inspire his studies when he returns to the classroom. It is based on sound psychological principles. Any teacher who deals with boys and girls of high school age knows that this is an age of enthusiasm and many of them have begun to think of their future careers. It may be called a passing phase. If it is so, we must catch it as it passes, and exploit it to the full, before it changes into the age of cynicism, a scramble for paper qualifications and a choice of jobs based solely on considerations of salary. Many teachers themselves are in this cynical phase, and instead of cultivating the idealism of their pupils, they poison it with their own cynicism. It is of the highest importance for all secondary school teachers to understand that their pupils at this stage are starry-eyed dreamers, not of salaries, but of dedicated service to their motherland. That is the secret of the vocational approach, and the guarantee of its success is in the hands of teachers who have retained their own idealism.

A school which cannot make a tour should attempt at least a school camp, in some locality which provides a variety of vocations. This school has recently returned from a nine-day camp at Zawar Mines, Rajasthan. The cost of Rs 30 per head was small enough to enable every pupil of classes VIII to X to attend (the school

making unobtrusive concessions in a few cases). 150 pupils and 10 teachers lived among a thriving community in a remote valley, studying mining and miners at first hand. The pupils were divided into project groups, consisting of Chemistry, Physics, Social Studies, Surveying and Art. With the help and co-operation of the mines staff, and the guidance of the teachers, they learnt all they wanted to know about zinc- and lead-mining in general, and their own group's aspect of it in particular. They were able to visualize their future selves as mining engineers, chemists, personnel workers or surveyors. They forgot, for those nine days, the shadow of the years of study and examinations, and escaped into the sunshine of the golden future beyond.

In the school laboratory it is difficult to avoid the feeling that the main reason for practical periods is to cover the prescribed syllabus and to pass the final examination. In the laboratory at the Zawar Mines, the pupils saw real chemists performing real experiments and making real calculations, upon whose accuracy and efficiency depended the successful operation of the mines, and the progress and prosperity of the country. Now they have carried that vision with them into the school laboratory. It is the responsibility of the teacher to make sure that this does not fade.

Any one camp can cover only a limited range of subjects. There is little at Zawar Mines for the Hindi scholar or the historian, just as a camp at, say, Ajanta would be barren for the scientist. The ideal arrangement would be a roster of three types of localities—industrial, historical and social—in the three years which the pupils spend in these high school classes.

But a camp, like a tour, is only a small part of the school programme. The vocational approach to teaching need not be confined to a few days in the year. Every locality is inhabited by people doing various jobs. A school situated in a town can find a wide range of vocations on its own doorstep. Educational visits to factories are already a common feature of many school programmes. Pupils should be shown not only the manufacturing processes, but the men who perform them: managers, supervisors, foremen, engineers, their work, salaries, qualifications, responsibilities, hours and conditions. Industry is not the only fruitful field for these visits. The students are not all aspiring to be engineers. There should be visits to architects' studios, law courts, newspaper offices and publishers, commercial houses, warehouses and wholesalers, hospitals, police stations, town halls, libraries, railway stations, archives offices and advertising agencies. They can learn all about these vocations, and meet the men and women in them. First-hand contact with real-life work will bring a sense of reality into their classroom studies.

Education at its Best

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Teachers with imagination can use the vocational approach in any subject, making the pupils feel an urgency in their studies. History is a dry business if it consists only of learning academic facts about the dead past. But it comes vividly to life if it is related to the living present, in a pageant of continuity. The everyday life which we lead and read about in the daily newspapers is but a continuation of life under the Mogul and British rulers which we read about in history books. A pupil whose vocational interest turns to public affairs, social welfare, law or politics, will find the same inspiration in history as the future chemist finds in the mines laboratory. Language study, often a boring nuisance, is brought to life by contact with writers, journalists and historians, men whose work demands an elegant and accurate use of words. To them, language is a tool of their trade, regarded with as much affection as a carpenter bestows on his plane and lathe.

The scope of a village school will naturally be more limited. But even in the countryside several trades and vocations can be found. There are community development schemes, forestry officers, irrigation projects, civil engineers building roads and bridges, agricultural experts improving crops, and soil conservation experts. Rural pupils must be encouraged to turn to these rural vocations, to halt the present dangerous drift of educated villagers to city jobs.

In these ways vocational education, which we saw at its best on our tour, can be brought home to all by a school camp, by visits in the locality of the school, and by vocation-oriented classroom studies. It can bring an entirely new dimension into school work, and breathe life into dead bones.

In multipurpose schools in particular, the vocational approach is vital to Class VIII pupils. They have to make a choice of subjects which may determine the whole course of their lives. They ought not to take that decisive step in the dark. Mr Austin A. De Souza, writing on multipurpose schools in *TEACHING*, December 1963, says, '... multipurpose education involves a radically new conception ... radical changes in current values, attitudes, curriculum, methods ... and school-community relationship.' I hope that Mr De Souza, and other readers, will consider seriously whether the vocational approach which I have outlined above will fulfil his demand for a radically new conception.

The second aspect of education is Social Education, learning how to 'dwell together in unity'. In this, too, the school tour is education at its best, because of the great variety of experiences, impressions and situations it offers to the students. Social living consists of reacting in an acceptable way to the various situations which confront us. The individual's reactions depend on two factors, his temperament

and his previous experience. The role of the teacher in social education is to understand and influence the temperament of each pupil, and to provide him with as wide a variety as possible of significant experiences. On tour or in camp, teachers have the greatest opportunities, because they have the pupils continuously under their guidance. They can instil habits of discipline, tolerance and mutual respect, and train the pupils in observation, initiative, clear thinking and intelligent discussion, the marks of an educated man or woman.

Contrast is the essence of experience. A poet asked, 'What should they know of England who only England know?' A boy who spends all his life in Rajasthan may well imagine that all the world is made of yellow dust and cactus scrub. Until he has a contrasting standard, such as he will get by going on a tour, his experiences lack validity. In the routine life of the school, we must look for contrasting standards to set against each other. Life's most important lesson, so well expressed by Kipling, is one example:

If you can meet with Triumph and Disaster
And treat those two impostors just the same.

A boy who wins all his races at school may become a bad loser in later life. Every pupil must be given, if necessary, experience of the two 'impostors', on the sports field or in the classroom, while he is still young enough to benefit from them. Another vivid contrast is between different kinds of teachers, the strict and the indulgent, the irritable and the calm, the efficient and the casual. Pupils learn how to extract the greatest advantage from each, a lesson of great value in later life. There are contrasts in attitudes towards religion, politics, servants, beggars, money, animals, which the wise teacher will exploit, making the school an epitome of the world. Social Education takes place more often outside the classroom than in it, on the sports field, the veranda, the library, the playground, or in the teacher's home. It demands qualities of a teacher which bear no relation to his academic attainments.

I believe that some of the best aspects of education can be brought into the routine of school life. I would be interested to know the ideas and experiences of other readers, and I therefore respectfully suggest to the Editor that at least one page of each issue of *TEACHING* be devoted to correspondence. Many of the articles in every number raise points upon which controversy would be stimulating, and would bring together the two or three thousand regular readers, scattered throughout the length and breadth of the country.

J. C. W. RUST

Book Reviews

D. MATTAM: *The Vital Approach* (Pergamon Press, 1963), Crown 8vo, pp. viii+162, 12s.6d.

This is one of the books published by the Pergamon Press in the series entitled *The Commonwealth and International Library of Science, Technology, Engineering and Liberal Studies*. In view of this title the reader might be excused for thinking that a book on the teaching of English would make some reference to teaching it as a foreign language. The orientation of this book is entirely English, and references to television programmes by name might be slightly puzzling to the overseas reader. Nevertheless, the author's approach to the subject is so vital, and his views of such fundamental importance, that anybody concerned with the teaching of the pupils' mother-tongue or of English in an English-medium school will find this a fascinating and highly informative book.

The author begins by defining what he means by 'the vital approach': to help children to realize the power that lies in language, and the extension of experience offered by literature. He condemns the acquisition of skills which are barren, a study of formal rules of grammar in academic isolation and methods adopted without sincerity. He insists on the importance of purposefulness and the feeling of a need. He suggests that the best starting-points can be found in what lies around us and recommends 'central theme work'. In 'The Last Lesson of the Afternoon' he quotes D. H. Lawrence:

'What does it matter to me if they can write

A description of a dog, or if they can't?
What is the point? To us both, it is
all my aunt!'

Each of the chapters, except the first and the last, are concerned with

one of the seven kinds of English (mother-tongue) activity: writing, language mechanics, oral expression, poetry, drama, reading for pleasure, and reading for information. The final chapter is concerned with broadcast lessons, films and examinations. Perhaps the author would have served his readers better had he devoted a separate chapter to assessment, as he seems to have more to say than the small section on examinations permits.

Each chapter is followed by an appendix which contains much invaluable factual information concerning teaching methods and aids as well as suggested reading material for use by pupils and teachers. In the appendix on 'The Spelling Lesson' which follows the chapter on 'The Mechanics of English', the author has not the space to spread himself, but he explains very well what he means by 'the vital approach' when speaking of an aspect of language-teaching which can often, for the pupils anyway, seem an isolated and arid performance. The chapter 'Oral Expression' is followed by a short but useful list of gramophone recordings of poetry, prose and drama. The chapter on poetry has an appendix containing an excellent list of recommended poems, and the appendix after each of the chapters on drama and reading consists of similar appropriate lists.

The book as a whole is readable, packed with information and infused with the spirit of one who, through poetry, wants 'to arouse in pupils a sense of the wonder of life which is beyond reason'. All teachers who are anxious that the teaching of a language which is their pupils' mother-tongue, or the medium of instruction, should be lively, purposeful and educative would do well to read this excellent and modestly priced little volume.

H. J. TAYLOR: *Operation Passmark*, Dy 8vo, 28 pp. (1963); H. J. TAYLOR & L. N. TILUANGA: *Grace Marks*, Dy 8vo, 12 pp. and 2 charts (1963). Available on request from the Registrar, Gauhati University.

Attention is drawn to two pamphlets issued by the University of Gauhati, the first an account of the methods used in conducting the Matriculation examination in 1963, and the second a mathematician's statement of the Duke of York's exasperated cry, 'Grace me no grace'.

The number of candidates appearing for the Matriculation examination of Gauhati University has swollen from 5,000 in 1948 to 35,000 in 1963. To meet the criticisms that results took too long to appear, and that they were not reliable when they did appear, the Academic Council, led by a Vice-Chancellor who is by training a physicist, changed the administration radically. By dividing the work of marking among seven zones much time was saved; and by scaling individual examiners' marks up or down in accordance with the average value of all examiners, more reliable results were obtained. Incidentally too, a higher pass percentage than usual (50.7) was achieved, because when there is a large element of chance it is much more likely that good candidates will fail than that bad candidates will pass. If 30 is the pass mark, a candidate who is awarded 30 marks in each of his six papers will pass, but a candidate who gets 50, 47, 40, 38, 29, and 22 marks will fail. Yet it can be proved that, statistically speaking, the second candidate is more likely to have passed the examination than the first candidate. This is because there is a 'standard error' in all measurements, and a mark of 30 should be interpreted to mean a mark of 30 plus or minus the examiner's error. If his standard error is 5, two-thirds of all the candidates who are awarded between 25 and 35 marks by this examiner prob-

ably deserve to pass; but about one in three times he will make an error larger than 5, and about once in 400 times an error larger than 15. Adjustments should be made in borderline cases on the basis of probabilities of error, not by awarding grace marks on compassionate grounds.

In *Operation Passmark* are reproduced the analyses of a number of examiners' mark-sheets. On a graph is shown the number of times a particular mark is awarded, and if the examiner is competent and conscientious, these graphs have a constant pattern, distributed fairly evenly around a swelling middle. When we examine the graphs of examiners Nos. 1016 and 481 we find that, though both are of regular shape, No. 1016 awards a median mark of 53 while No. 481 awards a median mark of 25. The result is that 79 per cent of No. 1016's candidates would pass and only 14 per cent of No. 481's. It had been ensured, by random numbering of the scripts, that each examiner dealt with scripts of similar standard, so these differences must be due to differences between examiners' standards.

These were in fact very great: some examiners failed 98 per cent of their candidates, some passed 100 per cent. Without correction, the result of the examination for a candidate would be largely determined by the choice of the examiner to whom his script was sent. Therefore, in Gauhati in 1963, the marks were adjusted to a common standard by a team of 14 Masters of Science, while another team of 36 Masters of Science was responsible for the tabulation. The work was facilitated by printed tables, and though laborious it was completed in less time than the usual moderating process.

No finality is claimed for the results, and it is clear that much of the unreliability of marking is inherent in the nature of the questions set; but the methods adopted by Gauhati deserve careful study by all examining bodies.

Book Reviews

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C. L. BHALLA: *Audio-Visual Aids in Education* (Atma Ram & Sons, 1963), 5½" × 8½", pp. 172, Rs 7.50.

This book is a fairly comprehensive study of the various audio-visual aids that can be employed in teaching children. It gives an account of not only what these aids are, but how they can be effectively used as well as how they should not be used. Chapters are devoted to the history of audio-visual aids—the planning and purpose of these aids and to the specific aids themselves—from the simple blackboard, bulletin board and map to the gramophone and radio, the epidiascope and the film-strip projector and tape-recorder.

Dramatization, the use of puppets, story-telling, the school museum and school journeys also find a place in this book.

About four chapters are on audio-visual aids that can be pressed into service for fundamental and adult education. A chapter on 'Improvised and Home-made Apparatus' is a useful inclusion in this book but would certainly have been of great value if the author had not made it so sketchy and paid some attention to the details of how actual apparatus can be improvised and cheaply made.

The book is substantially illustrated but a good few photographs seem to be redundant and purposeless, e.g. a photograph of a class looking at a bulletin board or a film seems to be pointless and could have been substituted by more worth-while illustrations.

For teacher-trainees this would be a good handbook and from this point of view the summaries at the end of each chapter would serve a useful purpose.

For modern schools in large cities with money, space and modern equipment this book has little new to offer but such schools are few compared with others all over the country with no equipment and scanty resources. For schools which are just developing, this book would be a good guide.

The appendixes at the end giving lists of films available at various centres is a happy addition and a good source of information for all schools, though one fails to understand why the list of films available at the Bombay Visual Education office has been omitted. The Bombay office has a large stock of films available for schools.

The value of this book would have certainly been enhanced if the author had paid some attention to grammar and style of writing. If one can overlook this, the book proves a source of useful information.

* * *

JERRY ROBINSON: *Atomic Energy*,
VALERIE SWENSON: *Stones and Minerals*, WILLIAM HUTCHINSON &
KURT SPIELBERG: *Space Travel*
(Outlook Series Nos. 1, 4 and 5,
Oliver & Boyd, 1963), 10" × 7", pp.
30 each, 3s.9d. each.

It is well known that science has advanced so much that it is becoming increasingly difficult for a genuine student of science to keep pace with it and its progress. The sciences taught in schools and colleges have not succeeded in meeting this challenge. The common man takes for granted several scientific marvels which were unknown to his forefathers, such as the sputniks, but does not have the time or the scope to become more familiar with these new marvels and the ideas that culminated in them.

There are several ways to tackle this problem. One method is to prepare a selected group of readings on special topics indicating the growth and development of scientific ideas. This has been well attempted by the 'Outlook Series' which publishes a few handy visual books where pictures and words combine to tell the story.

The first book of this series, *Atomic Energy*, is introduced with the Birth, of the Atomic Age'. The various theories about matter, nuclear structure and energy are then explained in simple terms. The special feature of this book

is the interesting account of nuclear scientists and their discoveries. Finally the medical, agricultural and industrial uses of this great power are discussed along with the promise of a bright future.

Stones and Minerals is the fourth number in this series. It gives simple explanations of the elements of geology. As the title suggests it deals with minerals, rocks, metals and precious stones. The first few pages are devoted to such common examples of sedimentary, igneous and metamorphic rocks as basalt, granite, limestone, sandstone, and marble. Common minerals like mica, cinnabar, jade and salt as well as useful metals like aluminium, copper, iron and silver come next. The last few pages deal with precious stones like diamonds, sapphires, emeralds and rubies. The general plan on each page devoted to each of the above topics is to describe their formation, properties and uses as well as their occurrence.

Space Travel—the fifth book in this series begins with 'Birth of a New Age' and then goes on to explain laws of motion, rockets and their propulsion, multistage rockets, artificial rockets and their uses. The hazards of space flights and the possibilities of interplanetary travel are well discussed at the end of the book.

All the three books contain coloured as well as black and white photographs and line-drawings. The most striking feature is the simplicity with which several difficult ideas, especially about atomic energy and space travel, have been explained and illustrated. The books thus make delightful reading. These books will no doubt be useful for teaching science in high schools as well as teaching science to the layman. They provide engrossing reading for all and are within the competence of a student of science at the high school level.

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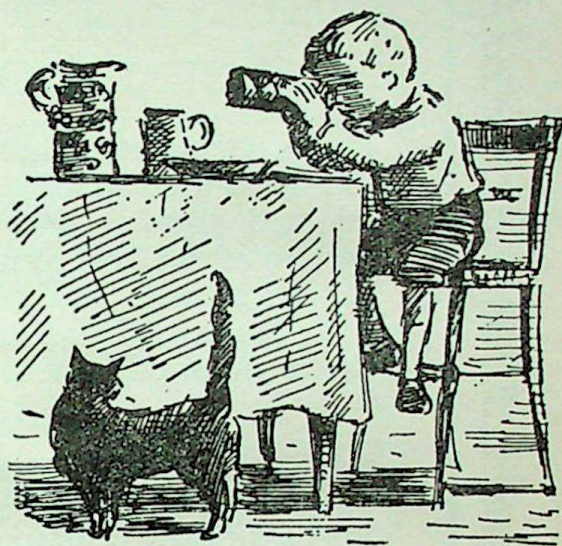
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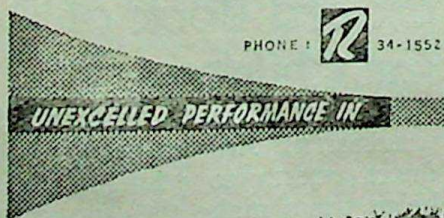
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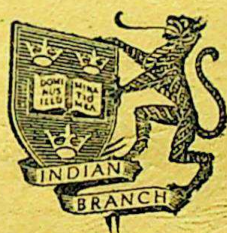
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A QUARTERLY TECHNICAL JOURNAL
FOR TEACHERS



JUNE 1964

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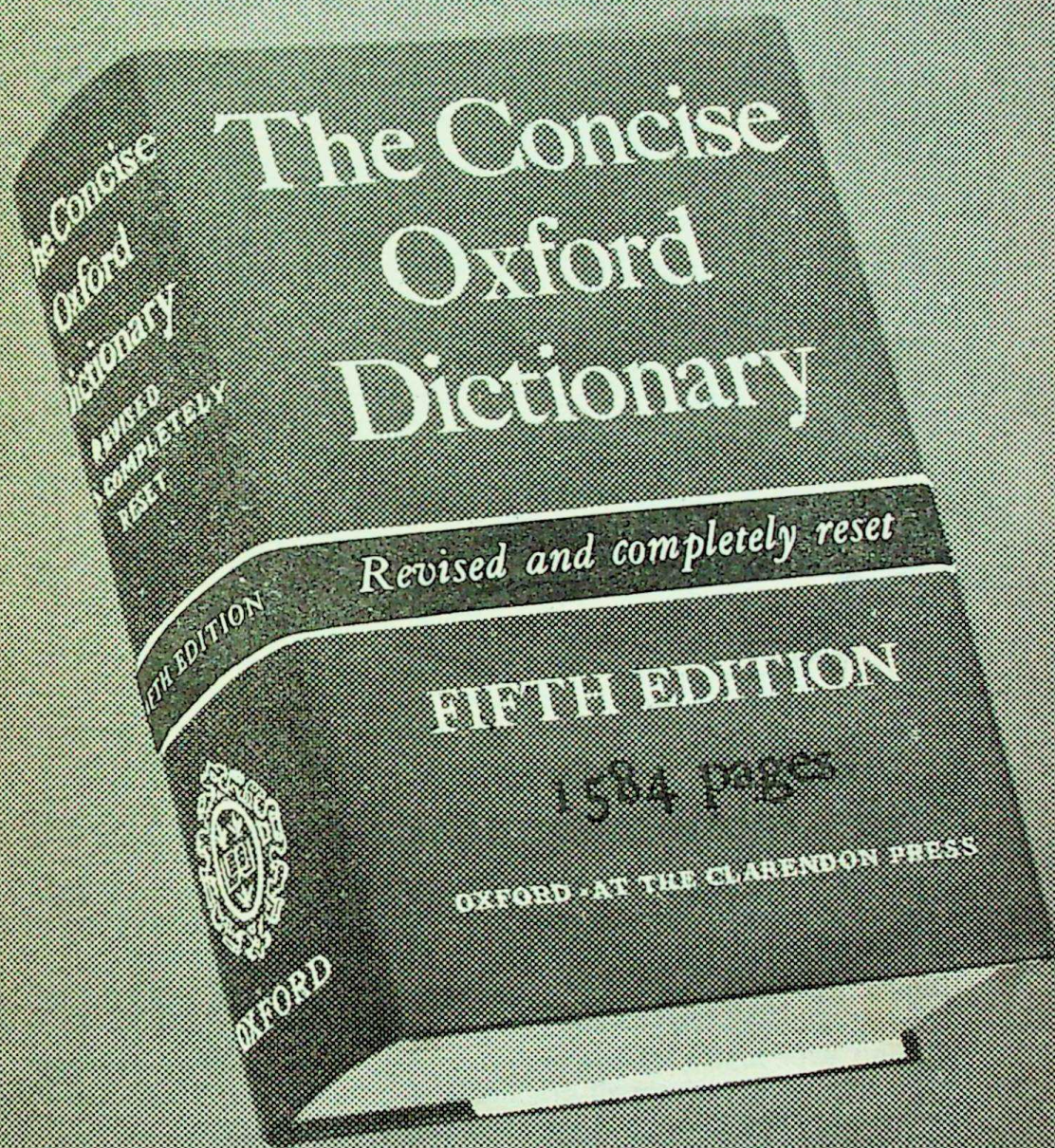
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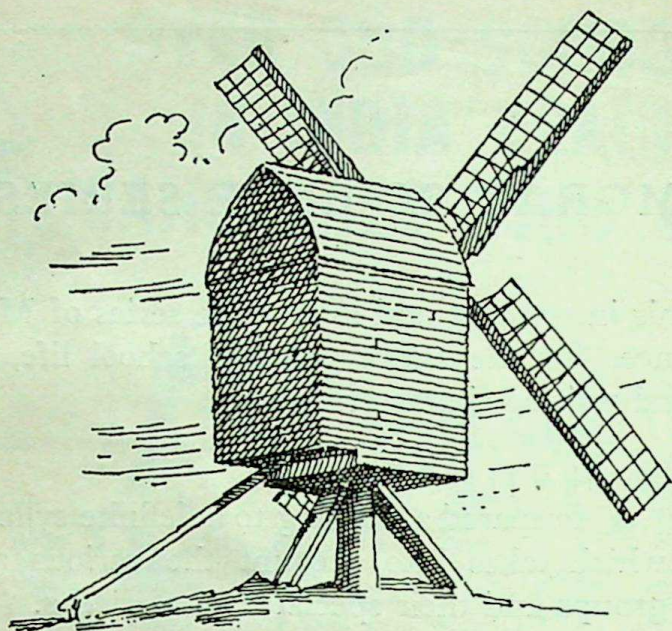
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TEACHING

A QUARTERLY TECHNICAL JOURNAL FOR TEACHERS

Editor: MARGARET BENJAMIN

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Editorial Note

THE ISSUE of December 1964 will be devoted to the subject of School Equipment. It is hardly necessary to suggest topics for articles. As every teacher knows, equipment ranges from the ordinary desk and blackboard to the gramophone, taperecorder and projector. The equipping of special rooms such as the library, the geography room and the laboratory should provide excellent material for articles.

Religion and Religious Values in Schools

AT THE OUTSET, I congratulate the Editor on the happy and opportune choice of subject for this issue of TEACHING. Everywhere, and especially in the field of education, there are signs of an awakening of interest in religious and moral matters. There is a marked tendency away from the materialistic conception of man and life that has prevailed since the middle of the nineteenth century. This was the result of the rapid development in the natural sciences, and of the naturalistic theory of evolution, which challenged the religious conception of the universe and set up science against religion in an attempt to make man autonomous and self-sufficient. What is significant, and even paradoxical, is the fact that this growing interest in religion exists side by side with unprecedented scientific and material progress all around. This to me is proof that there need be no conflict between material progress and moral values, between science and religion.

I have been asked to confine myself to the teaching of religion and religious values, as other contributors in this issue will deal with the teaching of morals and moral values.

Definitions

Let us start with some definitions. By values I mean principles of action. When these principles are concerned with the goodness or badness of an action they are moral values: an action being morally good or bad according to whether it conforms with the natural or moral laws known by reason and dictated by conscience. The ultimate norm of morality is, therefore, the natural law, not personal convenience, not even social expediency. Examples of moral values are: the sacredness of conscience, respect for others, reverence for truth, and respect for law. Religious values regulate man's relations with God, and they derive from truths or dogmas known by unaided reason or by revelation. Examples of religious values thus defined are: belief in the existence of God, belief in a future life, in man's dependence on God, in the immortality of the soul, in sin as a violation of God's law, and in divine retribution.

I call these values 'religious' and not simply 'spiritual', because the term 'spiritual' has been used by writers who wish to steer clear of religion proper and thus avoid all religious and supernatural implications. A case in question is the Sri Prakasa Committee Report which, by referring to 'spiritual' and not 'religious' values, does not differentiate between these values. All that the report means by spiritual values is the pursuit of goodness and beauty, and such qualities as kindness, sympathy, tolerance, personal refinement, aesthetic sentiment and good manners.

It is clear that morality and religion are two different things: a difference which, as I have said, the Sri Prakasa Committee Report failed to bring out clearly. Gandhiji was quite definite on this point, as may be seen from what he wrote in the *Harijan*. When asked why he did not include religion in the Wardha Scheme of education, he said: 'We left out the teaching of religion from the Scheme because we are afraid that religions, as they are taught and practised today, lead to conflict rather than unity. . . . I regard it fatal to the growth of a friendly spirit among the children belonging to the different faiths if they are taught either that their religion is superior to every other or that it is the true religion.'

Morality, as I have said, consists in the rational conformity of conduct to the moral law. Its object is to regulate man's life in relation to himself and to others. Religion, on the other hand, is the attitude of the whole man to God. Or, to give a

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definition acceptable to all major religions, it is a practical relationship with what is believed to be a suprahuman being or beings, together with the willing acceptance of the duties of worship arising therefrom. Its object is to regulate man's entire individual and social life by a code of behaviour based on the fundamental truths of religion. Yet morality and religion, although different, are inseparable. Morality depends on religion for its binding force and sanction. Right and wrong between man and man is unthinkable without an authority extrinsic to both.

The Soul of Education

Confining myself to religious education from the Catholic point of view, I may say that for the Catholic Church religion is the 'soul' of education, and it must therefore have a place in any system of education. The Church's attitude is well expressed in the aphorism 'The soul of education is the education of the soul', where the word 'soul' has a religious connotation and not merely the psychological sense of 'mind'. It is for this reason that religious training starts in the home and continues side by side with secular instruction in the school. The Church maintains that if the child has a right to be educated, he has a right to be educated fully, in all types of truths, religious not less than scientific, nothing being withheld from him that will prepare him better for life and develop all aspects of his personality. And, therefore, it holds that no system of education is complete that does not make provision for the teaching of religion. For the same reason it does not favour attendance at so-called 'neutral' schools, that is, schools without religious instruction.

Because of the importance it attaches to religious training, the Church does not believe in leaving religious instruction and education to take care of themselves. While it admits that example is better than precept, and that young children are drawn to the practice of religion more by what they see than by what they hear, it lays down a definite programme for the different stages, to be taught systematically and by competent teachers, themselves exemplars of the doctrine they teach. It accepts with some reservations the saying that religion, or for that matter, morality, is caught and not taught. For, granting that the young imitate their elders' religious practices and patterns of behaviour, as they copy other forms of conduct, yet, as they grow older, they are less carried away by what others do and want explanations for the demands that religious beliefs make on them. Here mere example may not suffice. For what is wanted in religion is not merely external conformity to rule or custom, but rational conformity

that derives from a conviction within, and such as can stand the test of time and trial.

In religious matters, knowledge is as important as practice. In fact there can be no true religious education without knowledge. This is certainly true of Christianity, which is partly a body of doctrine accepted on the authority of God's revelation. Religious practices—prayer, penance, attendance at religious services, outward reverence, and singing of hymns—with no knowledge of the truths on which they are based, leave faith without that intellectual basis on which alone Christian faith can rest. This necessitates the teaching of certain dogmas. The Church makes no apologies for being 'dogmatic' in certain aspects of her teaching. Dogmas are, after all, well established truths, and in this sense we have them in other fields of knowledge, such as science, philosophy and history, no less than in religion. These truths the Church teaches, always proposing, in a manner adapted to the level of the hearer, the rational ground on which they are based and on which acceptance is sought.

Again, religion is not only an affair of the head but also of the heart. It is not only a creed that must be learnt, but also a life that must be lived. I have a feeling that the Sri Prakasa Committee laboured under a doubtful supposition when it expressed the view that an objective comparative study of the leading religions would be an answer to corruption, dishonesty and indiscipline. As the writer of the leaderette in the *Times of India* observed, 'this assumes a cause and effect relationship which does not exist. A knowledge of religious systems and precepts does not necessarily encourage tolerance and integrity.' Mere knowledge does not suffice in religion. It is possible to know a good deal about religion and yet not be religious at all. You can teach writing and arithmetic with the easy conviction that it will be useful. But you cannot teach religion this way. Religion is of no use until it is conformed to and lived. Religion is lived when knowledge of it is applied to actual conduct, when faith issues into works, when doctrine guides action, when belief becomes a dominant motive of conduct, both interior and exterior, and regulates one's life as an individual and as a citizen. 'If you know these things,' Christ said, 'you shall be blessed if you do them.' There can be no gap between creed and deed, between knowledge and practice.

Aims and Methods in Religious Teaching

It follows, then, that the aim of religious instruction in Catholic schools is not only to teach children Christianity but to educate

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them in Christianity; not merely to impart knowledge but to instil life.

To achieve this twofold aim, schools have a programme of religious instruction drawn up by the ecclesiastical authorities. It is generally on the traditional lines of (a) what one must believe, (b) what one must do, and (c) means of sanctification and grace. The usual textbooks are the *Catechism of Christian Doctrine*, *Bible History* and *Apologetics*, a reasoned account of the faith, for the higher classes.

This is not the place to give a detailed description of the course in religion. It will suffice to state that the syllabus is graded, often concentric in its treatment, and that it includes a knowledge of those truths which reason teaches about God, man and life, as well as those which God has revealed about Himself—His inner nature, man's origin and destiny, his supernatural elevation, his fall, his restoration through Christ, the life of grace, its loss through sin and its salvation. Christian life is fostered and strengthened by teaching children how to live these religious truths in their daily lives through the practice of daily prayer, devotional exercises, the practice of virtue, and the frequent reception of the Sacraments.

As to the methods of teaching, care is taken that methods are adapted to the mental development of the student. With the younger children the approach is direct, with the use of pictures, stories, and dramatization. Care is also taken that the language of the teacher and of the books is simple and vivid, avoiding as far as possible abstractions and the scientific terminology of the theologian.

The objection is sometimes raised that children cannot understand. This can only mean that the child's ideas of religious truths are inadequate and imperfect. For instance the idea a child has of God as the heavenly Father is imperfect, but it is not false. It will be perfected as the child grows and his mind develops. The child's idea of God as the heavenly Father is derived from the earthly father, with whom he is acquainted. The child feels towards Him as he feels towards his own father. This explains why children show simplicity and confidence in their prayers. This is a true and genuine religion, and it is sufficient for the child for the time being.

On the same principle of adaptation, the manner of teaching religion to the adolescent is along intellectual lines, and is founded more on reason than on instinct. Therefore, the *Advanced Catechism* and *Apologetics* that are placed in his hands supply him with reasons for his belief. His acceptance does not rest

simply on the word of the parent or of the teacher, or on their example, but on the reasonableness of the truth proposed. Here the aim is to teach the adolescent to give an account of his faith, and to form convictions and acquire values that, as he grows, will become motives of action and ensure that his religion is genuine and stable.

The Training of Teachers

The chief problem that schools are faced with is not so much the drawing up of the syllabus and the preparation of suitable textbooks as finding persons who are competent to teach. So the question arises: Can the lay teacher teach religion? My submission is that religion, like any other subject, needs preparation and training. On the academic level the teacher of religion should, no less than the teacher of other school subjects, be well up in his subject. Only then will he be able to answer questions and speak with the certainty needed to present a truth effectively. Professionally, the teacher of religion should know how to impart his knowledge to others. Therefore, some knowledge of the general principles of teaching and of the correct methods of teaching religion are indispensable if he is to do his work well. The need of preparation, both academic and professional, has been recognized by the Church all along. In 1923 Pope Pius XI expressed himself as follows: 'We greatly desire that training schools be opened where young men and young women be trained and qualified in the teaching of religion.' And a later pronouncement directs that 'special courses of lectures in religion be arranged for the fuller and more perfect training of those who are to teach Christian Doctrine'.

It may be of interest that under the direction of the present writer a course of study culminating in a diploma in the Teaching of Religion was started in Bombay in 1938 with the object of preparing teachers for primary and secondary schools. The course is conducted every year, catering mainly for schools in South Bombay. Another centre, conducting a similar course, was subsequently opened in Bandra to cater for schools in North Bombay.

The aim of the course is to give prospective teacher-catechists a wider and deeper knowledge of religion, and to acquaint them with recent methods of teaching their subject. The course includes Natural Religion, Ethics, Apologetics, History of the Church, Child Psychology, History of Catechetics, Liturgy, Methods of Teaching Catechism, Methods of Bible Teaching, Supervised Teaching Practice.

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The importance which the Church attaches to the preparation and training of the teacher should not lead the reader to think that the place of the home is minimized. The school can never be a substitute for the home, nor can the teacher be a substitute for parents. The parents are the natural educators of their children, and theirs is the primary responsibility for religious, no less than for intellectual, education. On no account are they excused from the obligation of teaching their children the simple duties of religion, both by precept and by example. Gradually parents may delegate to the school the duty of further religious education which the children need but which parents may not be competent enough to impart. It follows that the choice of the school is a matter of the greatest parental responsibility. Parents are expected to choose a school where religion is taught and where the atmosphere and the teachers' example are conducive to religious education.

An Inadequate Report

It is clear that the recommendations of the Sri Prakasa Committee Report, however good, cannot meet the aims of the type of religious education outlined here. An objective and comparative study of religions and of the lives of religious leaders can have little influence on life and behaviour, particularly when 'the teaching of dogma and religious rituals are to be excluded from instruction'. What is wanted in schools is the teaching of religion proper. No fear of conflict should prevent this. Rivalry and conflict between the followers of different religions arise, not because religion is taught, but because it is not taught as it should be. For true religion engenders humility, this bringing brotherly love, sympathetic understanding and tolerance.

What is aimed at in Christian schools is an education which is entirely religious. Not only must we distinguish between the teaching of religion and morals, but the whole process of education—books, syllabus, teachers, and organization—must be regulated by life's supreme purpose, so that in reality religion is the foundation and the crown of youth's entire education. To quote the words of Pope Pius XI, ideally 'the product of such education is the man of character; the supernatural man who thinks and judges and acts in accordance with right reason, illumined by the example and teachings of Christ who said, "I am the Way, the Truth and the Life," and supported by a will nourished at the very Foundation of Life, which is Christ whom the Christian is exhorted to receive often in Holy Communion'.

A. SOLAGRAN

Thoughts on Religious Instruction in Secondary Schools

MY FIRST WORDS must be of apology. I have never taught in a secondary school and must unequivocally refrain from arrogating to myself knowledge that comes of such experience, an experience without which an adequate treatment of the subject is impossible. And in addition to mere knowledge, a deep understanding of the mentality of the child is also essential. Subject to this, I may say that I have given considerable thought to the problem in recent years. As a member of the Sri Prakasa Committee on Moral Instruction, and the Sampurnanand Committee on Emotional Integration, I have come to certain conclusions and I should like to make a few practical suggestions, briefly.

A Definition of Religion

I believe that religious instruction should be imparted to children in secondary schools within certain limits and with certain safeguards. Hence the question arises, what do we mean by religion? There is not, and cannot be, a consensus of opinion on the subject. In its broadest sense, religion is the relationship between the human self and an unseen reality which is responsible for the universe and its functioning. There are, in the modern world, three attitudes to this issue: (a) that there is a God or gods (deism); (b) that there is no God or gods (atheism); (c) that we do not know whether there is a God or gods (agnosticism). The great religions of the world (except Buddhism) teach that there is a God, or that there is a supreme being among other minor deities. Philosophical free-thinkers often come to the conclusion that it is unimportant to decide whether there is a God or not. And the materialists say that there is absolutely no reason to hold that there is a God. In between, there are infinite varieties of belief, disbelief and unbelief. But for our purpose the definition of religion given by Descartes may be accepted, and he lays down five propositions:

1. There is a supreme Numen, possessing eleven attributes, that is, it is blessed, self-existent, first cause, energy and purpose of all things, eternal, good, just, wise, infinite, omnipotent, and free.
2. It is man's duty to worship this supreme being.
3. Virtue and piety form the vital part of this worship.
4. Sin against this Numen must be repented of, and reparation made for it.

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5. The world is morally governed; that is to say, in the life hereafter man will receive a reward for his deeds.¹

If this is to be taken as our understanding of religion, a further element must be added. Religion is not merely a personal factor; it leads men to certain social acts. The daily *puja* among the Hindus and the daily prayers among the Muslims may be said to be strictly personal; while the large gatherings at Id, or the processions dedicated to the Hindu god Ganesh, popularly known as the Ganpati processions, are significant manifestations of the religious spirit, which must also be taken into consideration. Acts performed with religious convictions are important not only to the individual concerned but to society at large. This has been well described by the Supreme Court of India in a recent decision:

‘A religion is not merely an opinion, doctrine or belief. It has its outward expression as well.’ And: ‘Religious practices or performances of acts in pursuance of religious belief are as much part of religion as faith or belief in particular doctrines.’²

Thus it is clear that if we teach boys and girls of tender age certain *beliefs*, they will begin to perform with conviction certain *acts* as well. And we must see whether it is in the interest of the state to inculcate beliefs which will entail the performance of certain rites. For it is evident that where, as in India, there is a variety of religions, such public acts may lead to a conflict between the adherents of different faiths.

Religion in the Constitution

The Constitution of India lays down the fundamental principle of religious tolerance and equality. It says that all persons are equally entitled in freedom of conscience to *profess, practise, and propagate* religion (Art. 25). It is therefore the law in India that I can hold a certain faith, that I can practise its ritual, and that I can preach it to my fellow citizens, subject always to public order, morality and health. No one is permitted to hurt the feelings of another, nor to propagate a faith by devious means. The Constitution also lays down that religious instruction shall not be given in schools maintained solely at government expense. But there is no such bar in schools which are supported by private funds, where religious instruction may be imparted without being made compulsory.

¹ For a fuller discussion see *A Modern Approach to Islam* by A. A. A. Fyzee (Asia Publishing House, 1963) and the authorities cited therein.

² *Ratilal Panachand v. State of Bombay* (1954), S.C.R. 1055, 1064, 1065.

The question that arises is this: Should we, or should we not, as a general rule, prescribe some kind of religious instruction in schools endowed by private funds? My answer is 'yes', within the limitations mentioned here. Our answers to this question and our experience on this score may lead the state to modify its policy.

The main difficulties, as far as I can see, are fourfold :

1. In the process of instruction, bigotry, born of belief in the superiority of a certain faith, may be engendered.
2. It follows therefore that there is obvious danger in teaching one religion only.
3. To select staff for this delicate task, namely the teaching of a particular religion without preaching its absolute superiority over all others, is extremely difficult.
4. And lastly, piety is a matter of spiritual awakening; it is likened to a new light; it is comparable with a new birth; it is equated with the realization of a deeper truth. It may well be argued that without the creation of the 'idea of the holy', religious instruction is but tinsel.

A few observations may be made on each of these points. First and foremost, the equality of all faiths, all true in their own proper spheres, should be laid down as a fundamental axiom of instruction. No teacher should be permitted to affirm, even by implication, the superiority of one religion over another. Those who are born to a faith should be shown a better way of life and spiritual health within their own forms of belief and action. I can love my religion without hating or pitying any other; I can draw consolation from the fact that I am born in a certain faith, and that it is incumbent upon me to understand it thoroughly. And I should be taught to practise its ritual as a means for the betterment of society. It should not be necessary to compare one's religion with that of another; and if a comparison is to be made, the realization that one's knowledge is necessarily imperfect should breed true humility.

For this reason, I am opposed to the teaching of one religion in a school. Two or more religions should be taught to the adherents of any faith, and the students and teachers, by friendly association, should learn to respect the faith of others. Two instances from my personal experience may be given. The first is the friendly, co-operative attitude of the Shia and Sunni deans at Aligarh University. The two schools of Islam are taught and studied in the friendliest spirit, despite exhibitions of bigotry in other parts of the subcontinent. Secondly, in the Institute of

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Islamic Studies at Montreal, under the guidance of Professor Wilfred C. Smith, the spirit of tolerance and understanding was manifest amongst the holders of a variety of faiths. There must be other places, to be sure, where the finer spirit of man conquers senseless jealousy and hatred and attains understanding and compassion.

The teaching of a single religion, however well conducted, is fraught with great danger in our country, and I am opposed to it.

It is almost impossible in present conditions to have a sufficient number of teachers for religious instruction. They must themselves be pious, in the true sense of the word. Otherwise the whole effect will be lost. The devoutness of my own teachers, Blatter (Botany), Bevan (Arabic), Browne (Islamic Culture) and Nicholson (Sufism), meant more to me than anything I specifically learnt from them. The great spiritual masters of mankind are known to us all: Plato, Buddha, Krishna, Moses, Jesus, Muhammad. It is an unforgettable experience to study with a teacher inspired by their matchless guidance. In other words, I, as a student, must see for myself something of the spirit of this teaching in my teacher.

Some Suggestions

My specific proposals are:

In view of the widespread desire to teach religion in schools in India, a beginning may be made as follows:

1. Two or more religions, but not one, should be taught in some secondary schools.
2. Such religious instruction should be undertaken in selected schools only.
3. The results should be watched for at least three years and carefully assessed before any further extension of religious teaching.

In conclusion, I should like to administer a warning. It is my personal conviction that this experiment is not without its dangers, and we must be firm, independent and wise in pulling down if we find we have built the house on a foundation of sand.

A. A. A. FYZEE

Moral Instruction in the School

ALL OVER THE WORLD, but especially in India with its ancient cultures and traditions, religion is an essential part of man's life. Yet both educators and politicians have come to the conclusion that modern education is sadly lacking in the field of moral development. The student of today receives a highly scientific or literary training which, without concomitant moral education cannot cope with the problems of life. He becomes a skilled doctor, a qualified engineer, an erudite Sanskrit scholar, but what about his duties to his fellow man as a member of society, his duties to his country, and to God? This lack of moral values is a main cause of indiscipline among students.

Some people argue that religious and moral training must be given in the home alone. Is there any need to point out where the fallacy of such reasoning lies? The school is but a continuation of the home, and anything that tends to dissociate the one from the other will only be a detriment to character formation. Young people spend a great part of their childhood and adolescence at school and college. It is obvious, therefore, that we cannot keep spiritual and moral training out of school life and the curriculum.

There are two main difficulties, however, which have kept moral training out of the average school curriculum. The first arises chiefly from the need for separating moral from religious teaching. The variety of creeds found in most of our schools and colleges makes religion a subject which cannot be treated on a common basis, while separate instruction for the different creeds would be impracticable.

The second difficulty arises from the condition on which pupils of a certain religion are entrusted to a school or college run by persons of another creed or of mixed creeds—that there shall be no interference with their religion. Scrupulous fidelity to this trust has sometimes led to a total lack of moral instruction, with only occasional correction of faults and incidental stress on the general principles of good behaviour.

Answers to the Problem

Since the problem has been acknowledged by educationists at all levels let us examine the solutions that have been offered. For confirmation of the fact that government educators and politicians have been working for a solution to this problem, one need but refer to the reports of the Central Board of Education (1944), the Special Committee of 1946, the Radhakrishnan Commission (1952), and the subcommittee recently

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appointed by the Central Ministry of Education, which met in December 1963 in Delhi to plan a moral science syllabus for schools together with a teachers' guide.

Private schools have tried different methods to make up for the lack of instruction in moral education. Let us mention the main ones:

1. To begin and end school hours with a prayer, and hold prayer meetings occasionally during the year, or on special occasions such as Republic Day.

2. To devote one or two periods a week to a comparative study of the main religions, and to teach that man must be moral, since this is the basic principle of all religions.

3. To read the lives of great or holy men and encourage students to emulate their example.

4. To allot a certain number of periods to the teaching of moral science. It is left to the class-teacher to work out what he should do in practice.

5. To treat one of the sacred books, the Bible or the Gita, for example, as a textbook, and teach its message.

6. The more materialistic believe that vocational guidance given through I.Q. and aptitude tests, personality training and counselling, can make up for a lack of moral instruction.

Moral Science

The solution to this missing element can only be found in the teaching of natural ethics, commonly called moral science. This method has been in vogue for quite some years in a number of institutions. The main difficulty for such institutions was to find a suitable textbook. Unfortunately until very recently there were very few books on this subject, and they were old-fashioned and inadequate. The most commonly used was *Man's Great Concern* by Ernest Hull, S.J. Several periods a week were given to the teaching of this subject, and, as the results of a survey conducted not long ago show, there was generally a higher moral sense and greater religious practice among students of moral science.

In 1957-8 a group of college graduates conducted a survey in schools and colleges, some of which had a moral science course and some which did not, in order to ascertain the effectiveness of the course, the students' reactions to it, and current trends in moral thinking. They sent a carefully prepared questionnaire to a scientifically selected cross-section of the student population,

comprising members of the main religious groups and living in different parts of the country.¹

One of the questions asked the student's opinion about the teaching of moral science. In those institutions where moral science was not taught, the students were asked if they would like to have such a course added to the curriculum. They answered: Yes—95 per cent; No—4 per cent; No reply—1 per cent.

In those institutions where moral science was taught, most of the students replied in favour of it, a few against, and some, while accepting it, offered valuable criticism.² Here are a few of their answers :

‘Moral science is very good because it is the major reason why we are sent to school. We must form our character and lead a good life.’

‘Sir, to be frank, I say I have been able to learn one of the best things possible through the moral science class: my purpose in life.’

‘The moral science course must be compulsory. Even in elementary and secondary education this course must be added, irrespective of whether it is a public or a private school.’

‘A complete revision of the method is necessary and it must create interest in that study among students.’

‘The books should be written in a more interesting way, so that the reader can keep his mind on them.’³

Requirements of a Moral Science Course

We now come to a rather disputed point. What are the essential requirements of a moral science course? Its purpose is not merely to build character or give vocational guidance. Nor is it just a study of comparative religions with moral implications. What is it, then? As a government spokesman said, ‘It must be a course fulfilling the *religious and spiritual* demands which every human being has’, originating from man's entire dependence on God, his Maker and Lord.

In preparing a moral science course two main difficulties must be solved. The first is to frame the course practically on the lines of

¹ When the answers to the questionnaire were received they were turned over to P. Ramchandran, Assistant Research Director, Tata Institute of Social Sciences, Bombay, who supervised the tabulation, and to G. S. Dhanamjaya of the same institute, who made the assessment.

² The final results of this survey have been published in a booklet entitled, *Survey—Moral Trends among Indian Students*.

³ For a better understanding of these thought-provoking answers, see pp. 53-60 of the survey.

a particular religion, without identifying it or forcing it on those of other faiths. There is no need to stress where a forcing of dogma would lead, or what harm it would cause. The second danger is more subtle. If we lower the standard of the course to a minimum below the common denominator of all religions, or below the demands of the universal law which binds all men, then moral science becomes a mere variation on good manners and etiquette.

Moral science must be based on 'the concrete expression of God's plan for man'. In moral science we learn to do what is right and avoid what is wrong, 'ordaining our lives according to that plan of God for man'.¹

These beliefs and principles, common to all, are the solid foundation upon which each individual will build his religious life; it is basic moral training, which each one must further enrich, under God's guidance, with his own religious beliefs and practices.

Textbooks : The Moral Science Series

It was clear that something constructive had to be done in the preparation of a complete series of textbooks. Here I would particularly like to mention a series published by Macmillan & Co. This series, mentioned in the bibliography to this article, fulfils the existing need. The principles inculcated in the books are common to all men. They concern man's relation with God and his dependence on Him, as well as his obligations to himself and his fellow beings. Truths and injunctions particular to individual creeds are excluded. The series has much to offer, besides being based on modern educational methods. The books are well graded. They cover the whole school period, and take into account the various age-groups and their specific characteristics. When a child is small, for instance, God must be presented to him as a kind Father. Later, when young people begin to be independent, the problems they are going to meet in life should be presented as a challenge.

The general approach of the series is positive, avoiding the don'ts and encouraging the do's. Virtue is attractively depicted as an ideal fulfilled by great men, and consequently to be imitated by the student. Stress is laid on the practical aspect, with many

¹ In this connexion, Ernest Hull writes, 'Morality—Moral Science—is inseparably connected with religion because it consists in obeying the laws of God as written in the conscience. Without belief in God as a supreme Law-Giver, morality would lose its proper meaning as an important duty, and would be reduced merely to a matter of utility, or pleasing and attractive behaviour, or social convention, and nothing more.'

exercises at the end of each lesson. Finally, by giving examples of prayers and by suggesting ways of praying, the authors have made teaching effective. If the only thing we succeed in doing is teaching students to pray, it will be worth all our efforts.

The series supplements a well-planned syllabus which ensures that all the essential points are covered without unnecessary repetition. The advantage of such a syllabus is that when students change schools, continuity in the teaching of moral science is ensured. However, such a syllabus alone is hardly sufficient. For one thing, not every school is likely to accept it as it would be very difficult for the teachers alone to implement. A series of textbooks is of immense help to the teacher, but no textbook should be slavishly followed. Provided the teacher has assimilated the basic principles, he is at liberty to adapt a textbook to his particular needs.

To aid the teacher better in his work, the same publishers intend to publish teachers' manuals with fully developed lessons, charts and diagrams for the blackboard, additional stories and exercises. Also, they intend making the textbooks shorter and cheaper by incorporating some of the matter into the teachers' manuals. It is hoped to revise the books periodically and bring them up to date. This has already been done in part. In 1962 the Bombay Catholic Teachers' Guild held two seminars for teachers of moral science. Their aim was to help teachers to use the series more profitably and to gather suggestions for improving the existing books. Some of the suggestions have already been incorporated in later editions.

However excellent a series of textbooks for moral science may be, their inspirational value ultimately depends on the teacher. Only he can give life to the matter presented in the books and help to integrate it into the lives of the students. He must encourage the student to see, judge and act for himself.

Teaching Aids

EXERCISES. Most of the new books have a number of exercises to help the teacher bring home the lesson. There are 'moral cases' which the student must solve, and 'thoughts to think and things to do' which provide matter for class discussion, homework and extra-curricular activities.

HOMEWORK. Teachers may ask the students to write answers to the moral cases that have been discussed in class. Other subjects for homework could be an essay on the main topic of the lesson, or a story real or imaginary which confirms the teaching of the lesson, or composing prayers on related topics.

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SCRAP-BOOKS. Pictures, drawings and photographs from magazines, old calendars and newspapers, which illustrate a particular topic, such as 'The Marvels of Nature Prove God's Existence', may be collected and pasted by the students in their scrap-books. They may write appropriate captions to these. Students in the junior classes will particularly enjoy this. As a class project, an exhibition with large pictures and captions could be set up and students of other classes invited to see it. Of course, not all subjects provide sufficient matter for an exhibition, but the one just mentioned should prove easy.

DEBATES. These are specially suited to higher classes. To ensure the pupils' attention and active participation, each student should be asked the reason for his opinions.

PANEL DISCUSSIONS. A board of five students or more prepares the subject for discussion well in advance. For the discussion proper the president can follow various methods: (i) he puts questions to each member of the panel in turn, or (ii) he lets them discuss the topic themselves, and intervenes only when they digress or to settle a disputed point.

QUESTION BOX. The teacher, the class panel or a well-trained student gives answers to questions submitted in writing. Some students who are reluctant to ask questions openly may avail themselves of the anonymity offered by the question box.

ACTION. Moral science will not achieve its object if it remains dry knowledge. It must be put into practice. Now, while the principles remain universal, the possibilities of action are as varied as the many school and home environments. So the teacher must suggest activities to follow each lesson. Let these activities be practical, positive and concrete. For example, 'Now, don't disobey your mother' is good advice but negative as action. Rather say, 'Help your mother in cleaning the house this evening.' It is good to let the students suggest activities too, for then they will be keener to carry them out.

THE NOTICE-BOARD. In most schools, each class has a notice-board. The pupils should be requested to bring material for moral science as they do for other subjects, and the teacher himself should add to the display from time to time.

MUTUAL UNDERSTANDING. A student from each religious denomination in the class should be asked to explain the main tenets of his faith or his religion's stand on a particular point. This will help to create greater understanding among the various communities. Such discussions should take place only occasionally and be limited to the upper classes.

All these methods may be used in the school, but the teacher need not restrict himself to the four walls of the classroom. The student should be taught to arrive at correct moral principles starting from events or situations he meets in his daily life outside the classroom. Among the many means that can be used, I shall mention only a few.

FILMS. All of us are aware of the role films play in the moral development of the young. Students should be taught to see and judge films not only from an artistic but from a moral point of view. Cine-forums have become one of the most efficient means of doing this. Before showing a film, the students' attention should be briefly drawn to both its moral and its artistic value. The film is followed by a discussion. If time and circumstances allow, some controversial parts of the film, or even the whole film, may be shown again to drive home the moral lesson. If a film of particular interest cannot be shown in the school, an explanation of it may be given in class and the students invited to see it in public. A cine-forum is an exacting method, and no teacher can conduct one efficiently without prior preparation.

EXCURSIONS. The pupils should be informed well in advance that they will be taken on a tour of charitable or correctional institutions, and given the reasons for such a tour. They should be encouraged to collect old clothes, books, toys, tobacco, and other useful articles. The heads of some of the well-known institutions in the town may be contacted. As a rule, they are co-operative. The trip could include, for instance, a hospital, a gaol, and some charitable institutions such as a home for the aged, a foundling home, or a leper asylum. A visit to a slum would also not be out of place.

Such visits have a tremendous influence on most students, specially those who come from the upper classes.

DAILY EVENTS. Another means of correlating moral science with the daily life of the student is through the use of newspapers, magazines and journals. Daily events are analysed in the light of the moral principles studied in class. This helps to develop sound and independent judgement. Students learn to read intelligently and distinguish truth from propaganda.

However sound these methods of teaching may be, practice is all-important. For moral science cannot simply be taught, it must be lived. One cannot give what one does not have. In this subject, unless a teacher lives up to what he teaches he is bound to fail. Here, example is not only the best teacher but an indispensable part of the teaching apparatus.

JOHN M. ARAGÓ

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The Fundamental Approach

THE HISTORY OF EDUCATION makes it evident that in the past, both in the West and in India, education was intimately associated with religion. Much of education was centred on religion, and a large number of schools in the West were either initiated or conducted and managed by religious bodies, while the gurus of this country were mainly interested in teaching the young the holy scriptures. But industrialization and other social changes swung the pendulum in favour of secular education. In some countries the pendulum swung so far that it became fashionable to denounce religion altogether. Today the general feeling is that barbarity and indiscipline stem from the lack of religious and moral teaching in schools. This argument does not hold true. If the older generation were given large doses of religion when young, they have not shown extraordinary evidence of spirituality in their behaviour as adults, and what crimes have not been perpetrated in our own lifetime in the name of religion! I refer not to the barbarity of primitive peoples, but to the crimes of those who claimed to be the most civilized and culturally advanced.

Universality of Religion and Morality

Should one conclude from this that religious and moral teaching serve no useful purpose in the education of the young? Not

necessarily. Religion can be both a constructive and a destructive force. Morality cannot be separated from religion, and the ethical concepts of all religions are the same. Religion cannot be made a positive force through the teaching of moral science or through the inculcation of a particular creed. Morality and religion must be linked to promote the building of basic values and attitudes. The principles of right and wrong will remain universal, though moral conventions may vary from one society to another and from one period to another. For example, today, a man cannot marry his sister as this would be considered a mortal sin, but it was an accepted practice in ancient times.

In India today the feeling is that the teaching of religion poses a difficult problem, and the innumerable creeds are the main obstacle to the introduction of religious teaching in schools. This is because most people think of Hinduism and Islam, Judaism and Christianity as the separate privileges of individuals who happen to be born into these faiths. True religion and morality transcend all differences and are not the special privileges of any one group. I maintain emphatically that morality cannot be taught through textbooks of moral science, or by telling children what sin is and expecting them to write essays about it in examination papers. Morality can only be taught by precepts and examples, and a conscious effort must be made by the parent and the educator to build moral and spiritual values which will result in good behaviour and a good life. Inspiration for morality must come from personal contacts, from a child's environment, from the examples of teachers, parents, and men in public life. Morality can only be inculcated subtly, unostensibly, not by do's and don'ts, or through textbooks.

Religion at Different Stages of a Child's Life

I do not for a moment contend that religion cannot find a place in the life of a child. If a parent feels that a child must have a fair knowledge of his religion, with all the spiritual and moral implications, then certainly he should impart religious instruction. But he must also teach the child to distinguish between religion and ritual, between the letter of the law as laid down in the scriptures and superstition. Moreover, the child must be taught that other religions are also rich in moral and spiritual values.

At the primary stage the parent teaches the child to pray, and tells him stories about the prophets of his religion. Stories appeal as stories, and their moral may sink into the subconscious, but prayer is meaningless to a child. To him it is an act he must perform every day with hands folded because his parents tell him

it is good for him. It is not enough to tell a child that it is good to go to church. He must also be told that his friends go to the temple or mosque. Let him accompany his friends to their places of worship.

In a denominational school the child is taught his religion. It is a part of the regular curriculum, a period set aside for God. One may well ask from the child's point of view, 'Is this period very different from others?' Does the child give it special attention, and does he treat it with reverence? He may, if religious instruction is given by an inspired teacher. But as such teachers are rare, religious instruction and moral science periods must go, and so must the moral science textbook.

What shall We Teach in Schools?

In a denominational school a period may be reserved not for God, but for imparting information and knowledge of the religion to which the children subscribe, and for teaching them in an indirect way the principles, values and attitudes of this religion. But this is not enough, for children should also be told of other religions. For example, in a Christian school it is not sufficient to tell stories from the Bible. Stories of great men of other religions—even of mythology—must find a place. Let children learn to think and read about great men of all times and all faiths. Assemblies, celebrations of holidays, library books, films and debates are effective means of imparting such knowledge. Observations of the ritual and ceremonies of their own religion can be made more realistic if the children are given an intelligent understanding of them. In secular schools this problem does not arise.

In the higher secondary school the same principles may be followed and the same methods utilized at a more advanced level. An additional phase may be introduced here. An elementary knowledge of comparative religions must be given for the healthy mental and spiritual development of the child. One of the ways in which this can be done is to have occasional talks on the major religions of the world by liberal men and women who can communicate with adolescents. This method has had considerable success in the school with which I am associated. The talks aroused great interest and the pupils asked the speakers a number of intelligent questions.

Greater opportunities for the study of comparative religions must be given to students at the university level, for what can be accomplished in schools will of course be elementary.

Religion and the Child of Today

There is another aspect of the subject which confirms my belief that this is the best way of inculcating religious and spiritual values. The child of today is precocious and sophisticated. He takes a lively interest in his environment and is sensitive to it. He is not prepared to accept God as his parents, his priest or his teacher present Him. In the West this precociousness is most evident, and children in India are only a few steps behind, conforming to the same pattern. This is not because there is something wrong with children today, or that they are fundamentally changed. It is that they live in a changing society. An incident recently reported in a responsible English paper will illustrate my point. In a large departmental store, last Christmas, a nine-year-old with a younger brother in tow was asked by Santa Claus, 'And what would you like for Christmas?' In a firm tone the youngster replied, 'I'm sorry, we don't believe in Father Christmas. We're atheists!'

The London *Times Educational Supplement* recently reported the opinion of thirty sixth-formers who attended a conference near Abingdon. It stated that 'today's sixth-formers want to be told about other religions as well as Christianity, to be educated in world citizenship. And they are against specialization. . . . One sixth-former was convinced that religious teaching was propaganda rather than help. Another had considerable support when he said that sixth-formers should be told about a number of religions and agnosticism and atheism so that they were better equipped to choose for themselves.'

One article, 'Religious Education—A New Approach', says: 'Religious education is being much discussed [in England]. Two interesting and readable reports appeared in 1962—Harold Loukes's *Teenage Religion*, an apt commentary on what is happening in a great number of schools . . . and a later report, *Religious Education in Secondary Schools*, prepared by the University of Sheffield, Institute of Education. The over-all picture is hardly encouraging.' The article continues, 'Typical expressions [of children] reported in Harold Loukes's book are: "The Bible—there is a lot of rubis [*sic*] in it. . . . I do not think it is true." On prayer, another child explained, "Just a wast of time, prayer," while on Christianity another exclaimed, "I wood not dye for Christianity, its just daft dyeing for Christianity".'

'The findings of the Sheffield Report were hardly more encouraging. Nearly three-quarters of well over a thousand pupils interviewed were unable to assign a meaning to Ascension Day.

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A majority of children saw no connexion between Church and Christianity, while apparently only thirty per cent of modern children were able to name one prophet from the Old Testament.'

This illustrates my point, that religious and moral teaching must take into account the child of today, a product of modern society. The above comments may be a sad reflection on the teacher of religious education in England, but they may be applied to teachers in our schools, too. We in India still live in the past. Many of us are still shedding tears over the old gurus, who were excellent for their times. Some feel that if the past were revived, the children of today would make fitting spiritual leaders of tomorrow. And this brings me to the gurus of today. Whatever methods you may use, whatever curricula you plan or textbooks you prescribe, it is the teacher alone who can instil the right attitudes. It is the personality of the teacher (and this includes the principal), his values, his spiritual and moral principles, irrespective of the religion he professes, that will influence in the long run. How many of our teachers are qualified for this? What training do we give them?

The Intelligent Approach

What we need today is not just a new approach, but an intelligent approach—wider knowledge, absence of bigotry, a liberal atmosphere in which every teacher will be capable of giving the child knowledge about religious values and universal truths. We need teachers and educators who can appreciate faiths other than their own, who realize that truth and goodness are not the monopoly of a particular sect. We need teachers who can develop critical thinking in the pupil so that later he may be free to choose a religion which will help him to live his life in the best possible way.

MARGARET BENJAMIN

Religion as a Constructive and a Destructive Force in Schools

THERE IS WIDESPREAD DISSATISFACTION with the state of education in this country, amongst professional educationists as well as amongst the general public. This dissatisfaction has many aspects. One mentioned fairly frequently is the secular character of the education given in state schools and colleges, and the restraints placed on denominational schools in the matter of religious instruction.

The doctrine of religious neutrality is not new. It was laid down during the British régime. It is true that the Government of India in the old imperialistic times maintained an ecclesiastical department consisting of bishops and chaplains of the Church of England. These were maintained for ministration to the British troops and to civil servants. But so far as the different Indian religions were concerned, the government was strictly neutral. Thus state schools in pre-Independence days were as secular as they are today. The policy with regard to denominational schools was also the same, under the so-called Conscience Clause.

There were many people who urged that this godless education was undermining the character of our children, and several attempts were made just before Independence to introduce religious and moral instruction in state schools. All these attempts proved abortive. In 1946 the Central Advisory Board of Education came to the conclusion that religious instruction was the business of the home and the community of the child.

In 1959 the Government of India appointed a four-man committee to look into this matter, with Sri Prakasa, Governor of Bombay, as chairman, A. A. A. Fyzee and myself as members, and P. N. Kirpal, Joint Secretary, Ministry of Education, as member-secretary. The terms of reference of the committee were:

1. To examine the desirability and feasibility of making specific provision for the teaching of moral and spiritual values in educational institutions.
2. If it is found desirable and feasible to make such provision, (a) to define briefly the content of instruction at various stages of education, and (b) to consider its place in the normal curriculum.

The committee held two marathon sittings at Raj Bhavan, Bombay, on 17 and 18 November and 20 and 21 December 1959, and signed a unanimous report, which they presented to the government soon after.

Unfortunately the Sri Prakasa Report did not get the publicity it deserved. Some Members of Parliament objected to the very

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appointment of the committee as *ultra vires* of the Constitution. But the government did not take up this challenge, which it could have done by arguing that the word 'religion' did not occur in the terms of reference of the committee. Possibly what prevented them from doing so was the fact that the report itself dealt with moral and religious instruction, and the realization that the term 'spiritual values' was synonymous with religion. The report was never discussed in Parliament, nor was it placed on the table of the House, as far as my information goes. The Central Ministry of Education took the unusual step of circularizing it with a letter addressed to state governments and vice-chancellors of universities. Neither the state governments nor the universities did anything to publicize the report. However, they appear to have indicated to the Central Ministry of Education that they were in general agreement with the main recommendations of the committee, and would await further suggestions in this connexion.

In spite of this lack of publicity, or perhaps because of it, I feel more than justified in bringing the main recommendations of this committee to the notice of educationists.

To the two main questions, the committee gave the following answers:

1. The teaching of moral and spiritual values in educational institutions is desirable, and specific provision for doing so is feasible *within certain limits*.

2. Such education in moral and spiritual values should include a comparative and sympathetic study of the lives and teachings of great religious leaders and, at later stages, their ethical systems and philosophies. Good manners, social service and patriotism should be continuously stressed at all stages.

The committee then went on to give a general idea of how these objectives could be realized at various stages. I must confess that I signed this report with considerable mental reservations. Whether the other members had similar reservations, I am not in a position to say. But I may be legitimately asked why I signed the report in spite of such reservations. I did so because for some time I had been greatly disturbed by the deterioration in discipline in schools and colleges. I have always held that the formation of character is the basic aim of education. If we fail to train the young in good conduct, then all the information, knowledge and skill we impart is worthless. I felt that the report was an emphatic reassertion of this basic aim. Moreover, my reservations were not in principle, but with regard to the limits imposed on the committee's proposals.

The main trouble with our report was that it was too optimistic. It overrated the constructive aspect of religious instruction, and underrated its destructive force when handled by incompetent teachers and narrow-minded communalists. These destructive forces were likely to predominate if an effort was made to introduce religious instruction as part of the regular curriculum. I felt that the danger was particularly great at the elementary stage. I was convinced that school instruction, if any, should be focused on moral, and not on the so-called spiritual, values.

This conviction does not amount to a denial of spiritual values. I believe that spiritual values do exist and are of the highest importance. But they cannot be directly inculcated. They grow indirectly and subconsciously as a by-product of the pupil's personal contact with teachers and with fellow students. It is in living together as a community, consisting of various religious, linguistic and cultural trends, that we learn tolerance.

The universal aspect of all religions, which the Sri Prakasa Report emphasized, is appreciated by only a small minority. This is specially so in a country such as India, which is still steeped in ignorance and superstition and has not been rescued from these evils by a scientific attitude. A reassessment of our current values is bound to come. But it will take time. Meanwhile, all that our schools can do is to inculcate in their pupils certain habits and moral attitudes which will resist the destructive forces of narrow religious beliefs and superstition, and support the constructive forces which religion at its best can engender. It is for each one who belongs to the teaching profession to think out ways in which this can be done, and not for a committee, however high-powered, to lay down a dogmatic scheme for all to follow.

G. C. CHATTERJI

The Challenge of Religious Education

THE HEATED DEBATE that centres on the position of religion in education is of comparatively recent origin. Till the nineteenth century it was an axiom, both in India and in Europe, that religion was the core and motive force of education, the foundation on which the superstructure of education must be built. But the wave of secularism that followed the French Revolution divorced education from religion in Europe. The influence soon spread to India where, coupled with the British policy of neutrality in

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matters of religion, it led to a predominantly secular type of public education throughout the country. Since then, secular education has been the order of the day in all public schools, both in Europe and in India, though side by side there continues to flourish a system of private schools, run by various religious denominations, in which religion forms an essential part of education.

The Turn of the Tide

So the debate continues. The secularists hold that it is undesirable and impracticable to make religious teaching a part of education. Their opponents say that without such teaching, education is an empty shell without substance, a body without a soul. Till World War II the secularists were triumphant everywhere, and religious teaching was banned in state schools throughout Europe and in India. But the war has led to a searching of conscience everywhere, and the rising tide of indiscipline, immorality and delinquency among the young is slowly but surely turning public opinion in favour of reintroducing religious education into the school curriculum. In England, an Act in 1944 made religious instruction and worship compulsory in all state schools. In several European countries, where governments fell in the past for merely proposing an extension of public aid to church schools, a more tolerant spirit is discernible, and religious instruction is permitted at state schools out of school hours, if the parents desire it. In some countries such as Holland and Eire, denominational schools are encouraged and given state aid.

Under the Constitution, India is a secular democratic republic. The British policy of strict neutrality in matters of religion has been continued, and no religious teaching is permitted in state schools. But here, as in the U.S.A., this policy of religious neutrality does not mean that the state is hostile to religion and religious instruction. A policy of secularism has been forced on the Indian government by the diversity of religions, which makes it impossible for the state to justly advocate the teaching of a particular religion in public schools. At the same time, the Constitution guarantees the various denominations complete freedom and generous assistance in maintaining their schools in which they can freely propagate their religion and impart religious instruction to those of their faith, provided such instruction is given out of school hours and not imposed on children of other religions.

Views of Leaders and Commissions

The exclusion of religious teaching from government schools and colleges has not met with complete approval in India. Many

of her leaders regret this omission, and prominent educationists have openly frowned on the present non-religious character of education in public institutions. When he was Home Minister, C. Rajagopalachari made it quite clear in a speech to the Muslim Educational Association in Madras that the government's policy of secularism and neutrality did not spring from indifference to the necessity of religion in education. He said : ' Unless we develop the inner law of conscience, and an attitude of reverence, life cannot be orderly. Education cannot be complete unless religion is included in it.' And the late Education Minister, Maulana Azad, expressed a similar opinion on more than one occasion.

The Sargent Commission on Post-War Educational Development in India insisted that religion in the most liberal sense should inspire all education. It recognized 'the fundamental importance of spiritual and moral instruction for character-building'. But, because of obvious administrative difficulties, the commission considered that such instruction should be given not in state-maintained schools, but at home and in the community. The University Education Commission of 1949 was much more forthright in its recommendations on this vital matter. It stressed that religion was a fundamental part of education, and recommended that ways and means be found to introduce some form of non-denominational religious teaching and worship in all Indian schools and colleges. 'Ours is a generation,' said the commission, 'that knows how to doubt but not to admire, much less believe.' It was strongly of the opinion that religious and moral teaching and practice were necessary to stop the current drift of India's educated youth towards indiscipline and immorality, scepticism and cynicism, atheism and nihilism.

Practical difficulties would undoubtedly arise in any attempt to implement these recommendations. But difficulties should not blind us to the validity and sanity of these views, and of the urgent necessity for exploring ways and means of implementing them. The character and morals of post-war youth in India, as in other countries, are steadily deteriorating, and the cause can be traced to the predominantly secular and amoral character of their education. The home cannot by itself fill this vacuum. Schools and colleges must also do their share, for they exert an influence, as great if not greater.

An Integral Component of Education

—Religion is an integral component of a complete education. Without it a curriculum is unbalanced. The past half-century has seen many new subjects added piecemeal to the curriculum,

The Challenge of Religious Education 125

which today resembles a patchwork quilt without design or purpose. Only religious and moral instruction can give some meaning and pattern to the shreds and patches that comprise the modern curriculum, and bring order to chaos.

The attempts of the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries to teach morality apart from religion have proved a costly failure, for religious belief is fundamental to morality, which rapidly deteriorates when deprived of its support. The disintegration of the individual personality and of social institutions, so common a feature of modern life, is mainly the result of apathy to religion. A regeneration of society can only be accomplished by a radically reformed system of education in which religious and moral training are the most vital elements.

Different parts of the curriculum are designed to develop different aspects of the personality. Religious and moral education alone concern the total personality, and as such must occupy a central position in any scheme that aims at the complete education of a man. Religion lies at the basis of morality, providing a man with standards and motives for moral behaviour and shaping his character. We must never forget that the ultimate aim of education is, to quote Ruskin, 'not to teach the child to know what he does not know, but to behave as he does not behave'. Hence any education worthy of the name must enable the child not only to make a good living, but to live a good life.

The bitter experience of the last fifty years has clearly demonstrated that education without religion does not merely remain non-religious but rapidly becomes anti-religious. The absence of religious instruction from the curriculum leads pupils to conclude that religion is unimportant, that it has little to do with the serious business of living. The secularists' treatment of religion as a private affair, confined to the home, has led to the dangerous belief that one's private and public life are to be put in watertight compartments, each regulated by a different code of morals.

Knowledge by itself is not only sterile but dangerous. Mahatma Gandhi put his finger on the main defect of modern secular education when he said that education without a religious and moral basis would only succeed in producing 'clever devils'. The tragedy of the world today, and of India, in spite of her professed 'spirituality', is that there are too many clever men and women about and too few good ones. It is time this negative, incomplete and dangerous type of education was replaced by one with noble incentives, by an education which is not only concerned with means and partial objectives, but with the ultimate ends of man's existence.

Once educationists and the community are convinced that religious education is an indispensable part of true education, a solution will be found to the administrative difficulties involved in introducing it in all schools and colleges. The term 'religious education' is used deliberately in place of the current expression 'religious instruction'. The latter reduces religion to the status of just another subject on the time-table, to be taught in isolation from the other subjects. This attitude will do more harm than good. Religion should not be a circumscribed part of the curriculum; it must provide the foundation and guiding spirit of the whole of education. Religious education, to be worth while, should consist not only of instruction in the tenets of a particular faith, but of common worship. Religion must be inculcated by both word and example, by teachers who are enthusiasts for and living examples of the way of life they advocate. Only then will religion be a truly dynamic force in education. India must return, in this respect, to her past traditions and once again make religion the foundation of national education.

AUSTIN A. DE SOUZA

Book Reviews

W. H. BURSTON: *Principles of History Teaching* (Methuen, 1963), Crown 8vo, pp. viii + 184, 10s. 6d.

This is a well-planned and extremely readable book. The author, head of the History Department of the University of London Institute of Education, explores answers to many questions that face the mature student and the teacher of history. What is meant by facts of history? Is the past studied for its own sake or from the standpoint of its practical effect on the present? The search for answers to these and other questions is handled with unusual precision and logic. The author's lucid, vivid, and often individual way of marshalling his facts, and the sanity and shrewdness of his comments on them, will prove a source of pleasure and profit even for the very few who might not wholly agree with his conclusions.

A lethargic teacher, inclined to dismiss the points raised as relevant only to the stratosphere of 'critical' philosophy of history, will be surprised to see how his convictions on the nature of history determine his selection of matter and methods for the classroom. Also he will see that an absence of consistent views leads to confusion of purpose and methods in history teaching.

The suggestions for applying modern educational techniques, of encouraging class activity, and the use of visual aids, maps and date charts are practical and based on the realization that history is essentially an imaginative study.

The chapter on the problem of grouping events and the characteristic pattern of explaining them should be of vital interest to the teacher. Does the essence of history lie in 'the uniqueness, concreteness and particularity of events'? How far should historical explanation be in terms of 'covering

laws'? What is the optimum generalization desirable in teaching by topics? These points are argued thoroughly and decisively, while acknowledging the theories of others.

The last two chapters which deal with problems of syllabus should be of great topical interest to Indian educators. One reader has been provoked to ask: Is the entire history of India, from the earliest times to the present day, a viable subject for study for the school final examinations? What option should be given for selecting periods for study? Is so-called world history a proper subject for high school or pre-university classes? How far should the study of Indian history be used to develop national consciousness? The author gives clear guidance to syllabus-makers about the principles on which they must base their answers.

Suggestions for further reading and an index add to the value of the book for teacher-trainees and teachers. Every history teacher should have this book, not on his shelf, but on his desk.

* * *

MURIEL WASI: *The Romance of Teaching* (National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi, 1964), Demy 8vo, pp. vi+96, Rs 2.50.

This book is written for young people who are thinking of becoming teachers. Socrates is held up as the perfect model for them, because he always tried to make his students think for themselves and to judge all things in the light of reason. The author also refers to other great European innovators, such as the Swiss Pestalozzi and the Italian Montessori, and to the pioneers of modern methods in this country—Ram Mohan Roy, G. K. Gokhale and Rabindranath Tagore. She mentions a number of less well-known figures including Roger Ascham, Bronson

Alcott and Booker T. Washington. In his foreword, Mr Prem Kirpal says the romance of teaching lies in the 'sustained instinct to give because it cannot help giving, that characterizes the teacher *par excellence* through the centuries'.

But for all teachers much of their life is drudgery, and it is the merit of this little book that it does not disguise this fact. Lakshmi is tired out by the time she has corrected her exercise books at the end of a day's teaching, but 'she knows without regret that she will be hard at work tomorrow morning'.

There is also a perceptive chapter on the way to deal with parents, and the book is written in an easy, discursive style. It is a pity that it has been so carelessly produced. Pascal did not say the words attributed to him on p. 10, and it is hard to understand why James Hilton (author of *Good-bye, Mr Chips*) becomes 'Milton, James' in the index.

* * *

O. N. BISHOP: *Beginning Biology* (Harrap, 1963), Demy 8vo, pp. 224, 12s. 6d.

Biology, which was for a long time mainly an observational and a descriptive subject, has recently changed into an experimental science. The significance of this change is not often realized in our country. One must be aware of the fact that observation and experiment play an important part in this essentially practical subject. The problem before us is how to teach biology so that it will be of the greatest use to the learner. Every teacher knows that learning is usually limited to a memorizing of facts, which are soon forgotten. But if a functional understanding of principles is attained, the ability to use facts and apply them is retained remarkably well. Thus activity should be the keynote of

biology teaching, and this book endeavours to show how this can be done.

As the name suggests, the book is a course for beginners. Most elementary textbooks in biology are descriptive and treat the subject from the natural history point of view. This one has a rigorous and scientific approach, based on practical work. Of the eleven chapters, the first eight are devoted to a study of the characteristics of living organisms. By means of fifty-six experiments and several detailed observations, the author has succeeded in describing the essential unity of living organisms. Each experiment is clearly stated and substantially illustrated. Directions for conducting them are given in simple language, and pupils are encouraged to observe, record and draw their own conclusions. In the remaining chapters the pupil learns about a great variety of living organisms.

In the last chapter, 'Field Studies', the author has impressed upon pupils the importance of precise and systematic field work. Detailed instructions, including eight more experiments, will surely help the pupils to carry out field work successfully. Several questions are asked throughout the book, and the knowledge gained by experiment and observation should enable pupils to answer them. The exercises at the end of each chapter provide recapitulation and summary notes.

Pupils learn more readily by doing and observing for themselves than by being told the facts. Personal experience enables them to retain and recall facts with little effort, for memory of experiences is far stronger than memory of matter learned by heart. This book, designed to instil good working habits, good techniques and logical thinking, is an important contribution to the field of elementary biology.

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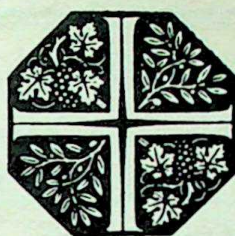
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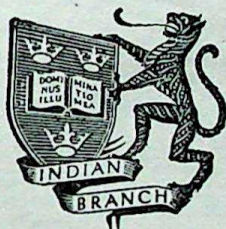
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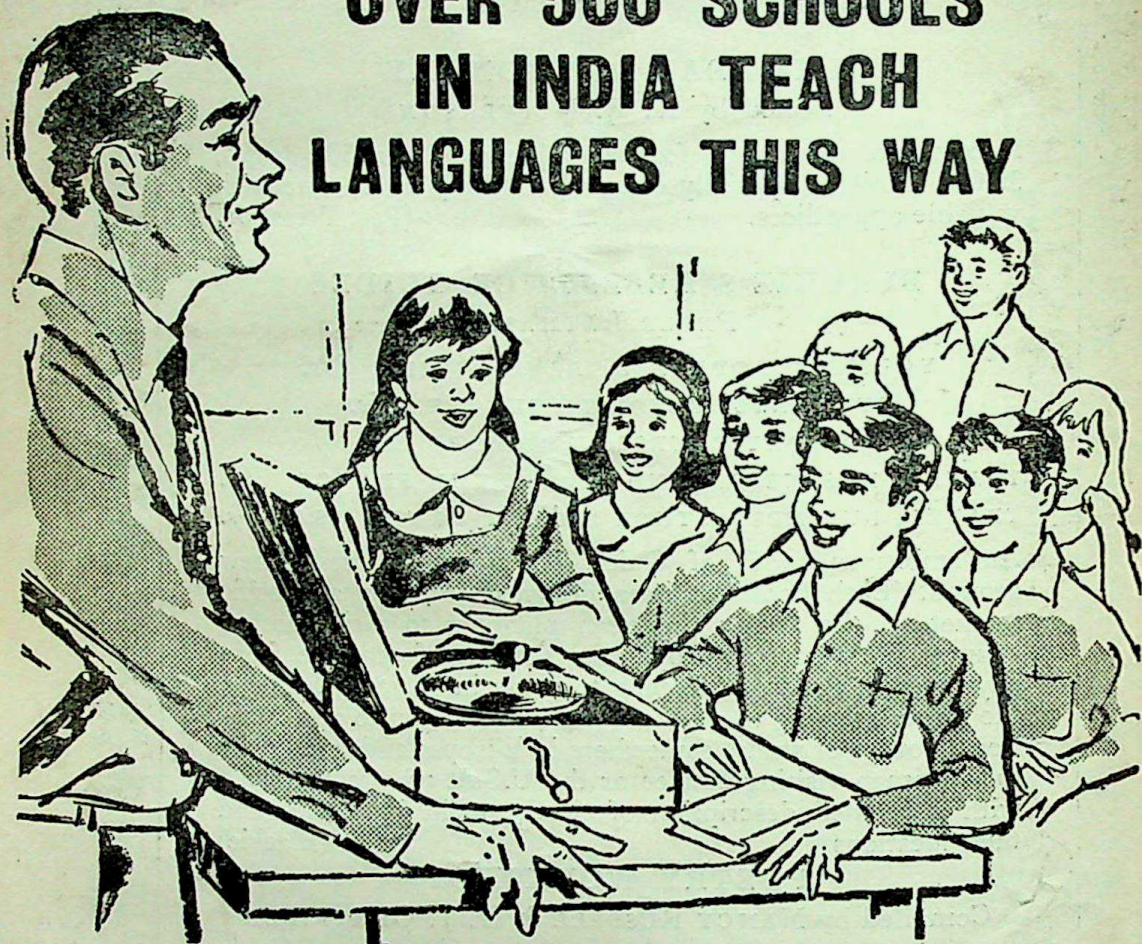
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Editor: MARGARET BENJAMIN

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Editorial Note

THE ISSUE of December 1964 will be devoted to the subject of School Equipment. It is hardly necessary to suggest topics for articles. As every teacher knows, equipment ranges from the ordinary desk and blackboard to the gramophone, tape-recorder and projector. The equipping of special rooms such as the library, the geography room and the laboratory should provide excellent material for articles.

Galileo Fights On

ARISTOTLE, strolling in an Athenian olive grove in 330 B.C., told his pupils that if two bodies are simultaneously dropped, the one ten times as heavy will fall ten times as fast. The pupils entered this in their notebooks, and later used it to pass their examinations. The physics syllabus of those days included no practical periods. It would have been gross impertinence to think it necessary to verify the words of one's teacher by experiment, especially when the teacher was one of the world's greatest intellects. Aristotle's dogmatic conclusions were passed down unquestioned through the centuries.

Then came the Italian Renaissance movement in the sixteenth century. For the first time, after nineteen hundred years, someone dared to say, 'Perhaps Aristotle was wrong.' Galileo performed his famous practical work at Pisa, and proved his point. Galileo, 400 years old last February, has won his fight against scientific dogma. Every scientist and science student today demands experimental verification. But Galileo faced an enemy on another front, that of religious dogma. When he said that a passage in the Bible is untrue ('Yea, the world is established; it shall never be moved;') he got into serious trouble, and died disgraced and friendless. That fight is still raging.

A Challenge to Religion

Since the dawn of human history religion has thrived on ignorance and emotion. It has grafted itself on social customs, and so has become deeply embedded in all human communities. There have been priests of all religions who have feathered their nests by encouraging superstitious fear and ignorance. In this age of science and universal education, religion is being seriously challenged in the intellectual sphere for the first time. Schoolboys today are not satisfied with *ex cathedra* pronouncements by their elders. They demand experimental verification, or, at the very least, intellectual plausibility. Schools are shirking this issue. In North America, Northern Europe and Japan, students by the thousand are professing atheism. They have been educated to think scientifically, and the religious leaders have no intellectual counterweight to offer. In the semi-illiterate countries of South America and Southern Europe, the Roman Catholic church is fighting a strong rearguard action with the old weapons of emotion, dogma and superstition. If the present trend continues, universal education will bring about the slow but certain death of religion.

This is a hard saying, to those of you who do not want religion to die. What can you do? The answer is plain. You must present the rising generation with a version of religion which is acceptable to the intellect as well as the emotions. The old fairy stories of anthropomorphic gods and magic do not help an educated man of today to face life's problems. The dogmatic approach—'This is written in the Gita, or the Koran, or the Bible, therefore it is true'—is a direct negation of the scientific approach which we are encouraging in our pupils.

Educationists fight shy of religious instruction in schools. In last year's inter-school English debate in Udaipur the subject was, 'That religious instruction in schools and colleges will help solve the problem of indiscipline'. Every one of those who supported the motion hastened to explain that when they said 'religious instruction' they did not actually mean religious instruction. They talked vaguely of non-sectarian prayers and hymns at morning assemblies, and talks on great men of all religions (including Socrates, who was an atheist!). It was hardly surprising when the motion was defeated on the popular vote.

Secular Education

The main cause of this timidity among teachers seems to lie in the much-abused term 'secular'. They imagine that secular education must avoid all controversial subjects such as religion and politics. I suggest that exactly the opposite is the case. Secular

Galileo Fights On

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education must include all subjects, taught secularly from every point of view. It must include instruction in all the religions which exist in India, their history, scriptures, dogmas, doctrines, ethics, mystique, and social customs. It must fairly present all the arguments for and against any controversial points, and it must encourage the pupils to ask the most searching questions. The secular method is a factual one. It does not concern itself with the emotional superiority of one religion over another. They all exist, and anything that exists is a fit subject for education. The vague, apologetic, 'give-no-offence' attitude does more harm than good. Why should anyone be offended by plain, honest exposition? Why should anyone be apologetic about what he sincerely believes? If he is ashamed of his religion, he must cease to profess it.

The modern tendency to free-thinking has already had its effect on politics. A voter no longer says, 'I vote for this party because my family have done so for a hundred years.' Today he thinks for himself, and supports the party which seems to him to have the best programme. Religion, if it is to survive, must follow the same road. A man born in a family of one religion must be encouraged to study all other religions, and be free to join them if they are more acceptable to his mind. Religion must become more than an automatic social label. It must be a living belief, an intellectual conviction as well as a social and emotional state.

The debate subject, to which I referred above, mentioned discipline in schools and colleges. It is exactly this concept of religion, as an unchangeable social label, which is the root cause of communal troubles among students. 'I am a Hindu, he is a Muslim, therefore he is my enemy.' Neither the Hindu nor the Muslim student has ever been encouraged to reflect that his religious label is purely a matter of chance, the religion which happened to prevail in the family in which he happened to be born. There is no valid reason why either of them should believe one particular set of dogmatic assertions rather than the other. If this had been made plain to them at school, there would be no communal rioting in the colleges.

In spite of the reasonableness of this point of view, parents and teachers will hesitate to encourage free thinking and discussion of these things among pupils. They see the growth of atheism in Europe and America, and they are afraid. I say to them plainly that their fear is unworthy. A religion which cannot stand up to scientific scrutiny, and which is not acceptable to the intellect of an educated man, deserves to die. If India decides to educate its youth in the traditions of Galileo (and how can it compete in the modern world otherwise?), then the Aristotles of authoritarian dogma must beat a retreat.

Religion need not die in these circumstances. Many highly intelligent and scientific minds have firm religious faith. Mysticism is not unacceptable to an intellectual man, nor the belief in re-incarnation and Nirvana. This faith can only be reached by searching questions, and the more candid the teacher's answers, the more honest and pure will be the resulting faith. I am thinking of questions like these: 'If we pray for rain, and two hundred people die in subsequent floods (as happened in the Punjab last year), does that prove the efficacy of prayer?' or, 'Is God a schizophrenic, who is sometimes a loving father and a "very present help in trouble", and at other times a capricious tyrant who wipes out innocent people in earthquakes and droughts?' Those who regard these candid questions as unseemly and blasphemous will be of no help to children. They are honest difficulties in their minds, and they deserve honest answers.

Moral Education

As the last number of *Teaching* dealt also with moral education, I will put in a plea for the same honesty in this field. For example, in condemning the use of alcohol and tobacco, most Indian teachers use a pseudo-scientific, but in fact purely emotional, technique. Lurid pictures of the lungs after one cigarette, and the liver after one glass of wine, certainly do not originate in the biology laboratory. They may effectively scare children whose knowledge of the world is limited to their own village. But in these days, pupils are increasingly knowledgeable about the world outside. They read newspapers and magazines. They know that Sir Winston Churchill is hale and hearty at ninety on a diet of whisky and cigars. They know that men whom they have been taught to regard as truly great, from Jesus to John Kennedy, were wine drinkers. The well-meant efforts to reach a desired end by distorting the truth is neither ethical nor effective. A new and more honest argument must be found. Climate may affect the question, but there again, teachers must be sure of the scientific facts, and not jump in too readily just for the emotional effect. The soundest reason against any form of indulgence is its cost. There should be full and free discussion, not only of alcohol and tobacco, but of all non-essential habits and activities. They include tea and coffee, betel, sweetmeats, the cinema and even books. The educated man learns to maintain a balance between the pleasure they give and the money they cost, and the possible damage to his system or, to his eyesight. It is a large and enthralling subject in which teachers can give guidance to their pupils which is vital to their development and happiness.

The more important issues of moral education, as honesty, integrity, kindness, simplicity, truth and initiative, call for no discussion because there are no two minds about them. Teachers must and do instil them both by precept and example. I will only make this comment. The teaching profession should be more rigorous in excluding from its ranks any man or woman capable of dishonest dealings, giving or receiving bribes, giving passes to favoured pupils, or any form of cheating. There are already too many of them in the schools. The teaching profession is a sacred trust, to which India looks for its future greatness. The good teacher's mind should be a temple, as pure and as clear as the greatest shrine of any religion.

J. C. W. RUST

Textbook and Teacher.

AMERICAN EDUCATIONISTS who visit India often ask, 'But why are you so textbook-ridden? Surely it is possible and preferable for teachers to teach without textbooks?' And this is what we must now consider. Why are we hidebound by textbooks in India today? What is the precise relationship between the teacher and the textbook? Do teachers really need textbooks? If not, what is the real place of the textbook in teaching in secondary schools? None of these questions is easy to answer, but every one of them is important enough to require an informed answer.

Two Books to Read

Two books (not textbooks but books written by educational experts with originality and vision) have recently appeared, and every teacher in India should read them. One is called *Teacher* and is by Sylvia Ashton-Warner, a New Zealander who achieved fame earlier when she wrote the novel *Spinster*. *Teacher* has a foreword by Herbert Read, the art critic, who says that he believes this to be an important book. It is.

The other book that I would recommend to all teachers at the secondary level, and particularly to teachers of language and art, is Sybil Marshall's *An Experiment in Education*.

What have these books in common that I recommend them together? The authors have strong traits of personality in common. They have probably never met or personally exchanged teaching experiences; yet both have acquired their understanding of the business of teaching from their own experiences. They are both

highly sensitive teachers who have grasped intuitively, as well as by experience, precisely what their own communities most need and want.

Sylvia Ashton-Warner has taught Maori children at the elementary level how to read, write and draw. Sybil Marshall appears to have taught English children only, but she has taught in rural areas (near Cambridge) where children are not as sophisticated as those of the upper-middle classes in the big cities of India. They have simpler backgrounds, though they live in a country much more highly industrialized than ours.

In both cases the teachers do not jump to textbooks as a matter of course. The New Zealander helps the children to make their own books. Indeed, they go further and make up their own vocabularies by adding word to word, till the concept grips them, and the zeal for word-making becomes a passion for self-expression and a desire to know the world of literature that embodies and immortalizes words. The English teacher does not write of textbooks, though she has herself been brought up on textbooks and has read sufficiently widely to know that it may be necessary to use a textbook to support new-found learning. Both these writers (and unlike most teachers, they are natural writers) see teaching as an exercise in guidance, not as a process of instruction. They see their function as one of assisting 'style', not one of filling empty minds with facts or even ideas. They see themselves as media through which the advancing child-mind takes what it wants.

Now we may question the wisdom of the original methods that these teacher-writers commend. Perhaps their classes were smaller than ours. Perhaps they had few material problems to solve. Perhaps they had a special quality of genius, three parts originality, one part obstinacy, that stood them in good stead, till they were satisfied that by their methods and no other could they serve their communities. Such experiences cannot be neglected. They must be understood, and then, if necessary, set aside.

Why Use Textbooks?

Why do we use textbooks? For several reasons, but chiefly because a textbook is a thing, not a person. A thing can be multiplied, transferred, re-transferred, rotated. It may suffer with use, it may suffer in time, but it can be made available to a very large number of people at one and the same time. Therefore, it is an economic tool for giving information.

We also use textbooks to confirm and support the teacher. They are an aid to the teacher who has run out of new ideas or does not have any at all. The textbook buoys her up. It gives her the

comfortable feeling that when she has spoken her piece, the textbook will supply an echo and provide exercises to drill the student in the thinking and working of what she has taught. Grammar textbooks, composition textbooks, arithmetic, algebra and geometry textbooks all do precisely this and, if they are good textbooks, do it well. They help to 'refresh' the student with what has already been taught in the classroom.

Should Textbooks Replace Teachers?

What does the history textbook do? As matters stand in our secondary schools today, it does the work of both teacher and textbook. In and out of history classes in secondary schools, I find that the teacher, who is often a conscientious person, bases everything that he says on the textbook, and it is not always a good one. This is exactly the use to which a textbook must *not* be put. For it was never intended to replace the teacher, only to assist him. It was never intended to stand by itself, except at the university level, when it is no longer strictly a textbook, but a standard educational work offered to young men and women who are in a position to select material, judge it and set the book aside when it has served their purpose.

A textbook, therefore, has its uses. It is intended to aid the teacher, not to replace him. It can provide both confirmation and sustenance if teacher and pupil use it correctly. It is always to be assumed that a textbook will be competently compiled and written, for if not, it is a liability. An incorrect, badly graded, badly printed and produced textbook is an unqualified misfortune. It should be banished. But, you will say, there are prescribed textbooks for prescribed examinations. There is, apparently, no way of avoiding that, and we will deal with the problem in time.

If every secondary school teacher in India were a good teacher—creative, strong and resilient—could we dispense altogether with textbooks? Perhaps we could, but I do not think that at this stage it would be advisable to dispense with them entirely. And these are my reasons:

1. Even good teachers cannot be with their pupils throughout the day. Many children come from homes devoid of books, or have only bad books. The good textbook is insurance against illiteracy at home.

2. A textbook sometimes has more to offer than the teacher. To the extent that it is not human, sensitive to stimuli, or capable of response, it is not as good as a teacher. But it may be more correct and better informed. If the child listens to the teacher, reads the textbook, and sees that they disagree, he will learn not to attach too

much importance, that is, *reverential* importance, to either. 'Remember,' runs the wise English-school slogan, 'the teacher may be wrong.' So, unfortunately, may the textbook. But the child learns from a conflict of fact or opinion that one or the other, or both, may be wrong. This is a big step forward in the development of critical judgement.

3. But this, it may be argued, is most confusing at a time when, above all things, a child should not be confused. Yes, but better confuse than leave sterile. A mind exercised on differing facts is at least a mind worked. A mind unchallenged is a mind static.

4. Increasingly, the inspired teacher is a rarity. It is still possible, by importing it if necessary, to have a good textbook. This is a corrective to bad teaching, and perhaps it is also a way of improving teacher-education during the training years.

How to Find the Right Textbooks

If this argument is true, how can we ensure that we get the right type of textbooks for the teachers we have? We can do this only by getting teachers to work on textbooks. Time must be set aside for this purpose, and teachers asked to work in groups or alone, as they please, with writers, artists, and co-ordinators. Thus we shall learn the difference between a good and a bad textbook, between a professional and an amateurish one. We will begin to understand the sense and the nonsense of programmed instruction. We will begin to see the precise value of the objective test as a method of study and revision.

And what of the prescribed textbook for the prescribed examination? We shall place ourselves in a position to evaluate it publicly, and to pass judgement on it. For ultimately, those who teach through these textbooks must themselves be in a position to judge the books they use.

MURIEL WASI

Religion and the Building of Character

THE PROPER DEVELOPMENT OF YOUTH has always been one of the chief interests of humanity. The goal of education is character-building. Educators throughout the ages and in all countries have felt that the greatest attainment is a well-developed personality—a beautiful moral character. The history of education in almost all countries shows that from the very beginning people have been interested in the religious and moral development of youth. For many years the influence of the church was felt in all educational work. There was a determined effort to train every child in the principles of moral conduct.

A system of moral and spiritual values is indispensable to group living. In a society which cherishes the greatest degree of individual freedom, the allegiance of the individual to commonly approved moral standards is essential. No social invention, however ingenious, no improvements in government structure, however prudent, no enactment of statutes and ordinances, however lofty their aims, can produce a good and secure society if personal integrity and self-discipline are lacking.

By moral and spiritual values we mean those values which, when applied to human behaviour, exalt and refine life and bring it into accord with the standards of conduct that are approved in our democratic culture. By morals, we also mean good habits, and by good habits we also mean obedience to conventions.

Since the beginning of the twentieth century there has been a gradual reawakening of interest in character education. Educationists are now questioning whether we have too long laboured under a materialistic philosophy which has turned the eyes of youth toward superficial goals. Have we hoped for a moral citizenship to grow out of a materialistic atmosphere? Character is a spiritual state, and cannot be developed when one's eyes are set upon a materialistic goal. But it is unfair to say that the schools alone are responsible for this materialistic philosophy. We have come to realize that the community at large is a great influence in the life of the child. A hopeful factor in this situation is that so many educationists are facing the facts and are ready to give character training a large place in the school curriculum.

The use of the term 'character development' is justified here in that it covers both moral training and moral instruction. Character is a composite quality of personality and is derived from several elements. It is woven out of many types of influence, and many forms of experience enter into the warp and woof of this spiritual fabric. Man's actions are built into his character, helping to form its very structure. The character which has already attained high

ideals inspires or initiates certain actions and checks or inhibits others. Character is an aggregate of habits, attitudes, and philosophies of life. It is a quality that comes through living and expresses itself in living. It is that element of a man's make-up which, though it may be conditioned by heredity and environment, is nevertheless his own achievement. In considering the factors that go into the making of a character, we see at least four essential elements: intrinsic ability—physical, mental and spiritual; rich experience, wide knowledge, and deep meditation. From these essentials develop new characteristics, such as strength of mind, stability, and optimism. Greater than these is a characteristic we may call soul-bent or spirit-set, which is of the highest significance.

Morality is the sense of right and wrong as learned from experience and from the rules and regulations of society. It develops from a knowledge of the customs of the people one associates with, and has to do with human relationships.

Religion is more than morality, for morality lacks warmth, life, affection, and the activities inspired by a spiritual relationship with the divine. Religion includes morality, but goes further. It is concerned with man's attitude to and relationship with what he considers worthy of worship. Both religion and morality are factors in the make-up of that quality of personality which we call character.

The following are some of the moral and spiritual values:

1. A strong human personality.
2. Moral responsibility.
3. Institutions to serve mankind.
4. Devotion to truth.
5. Respect for excellence.
6. Brotherhood.
7. Pursuit of happiness.
8. Spiritual enrichment.

Learning Values in the Home

The child first develops attitudes in the home. Knowing that he is loved, and growing in ability to think and act for himself, he realizes that he is an individual of importance. If he fails to develop self-respect and a sense of belonging at home, it will be doubly difficult for him to find these satisfactions at school and among his friends. Acceptance of self is essential to growth towards unselfishness, to moral and spiritual development, for a person must learn to live well with himself before he can live well with others.

Children need, too, the right to do things for themselves; to experience success, and to overcome or accept certain failures. This

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means that parents must have the patience to let their children experiment, even though slowly or imperfectly. They must have the imagination to give their children tasks which are not routinely dull but provide a real challenge to their ability. And they must not insist on standards of success at home or at school that are beyond the child's ability. Assertion of independence from parental authority is usually a healthy sign of growth, but it may be marked by a rejection of moral and spiritual values identified with the older generation. This problem arises especially in the case of teen-agers.

Another important step towards moral and spiritual growth that a child must take at home is learning to love others. He responds to the love of his parents by loving them in return. He also learns from evidences of love between father and mother. His first big test may be in learning to share his parents' love with a new baby. In large families, and in family groups which include grandparents and other relatives, the child has rich opportunities for developing a variety of emotional ties. He learns the joy of giving and sharing, and he also has the security of belonging to a large yet closely knit group.

Because children have fewer people to share their experiences with, parents must work harder to make the home a place where there is fun, activity, a variety of topics to discuss, and harmony. But they must work hard also to develop the individuality of each member of the family.

The religious development of children is influenced greatly by guidance received at home. Many parents make a conscious attempt to instil religious belief in their children, to acquaint them with traditional religious activities for youth sponsored by churches. Many also emphasize participation in religious activities by the family as a group, both within the home and at religious services.

Learning Values at School

Character education takes place every hour of the school day. For instance, it takes place at the school assembly, and when the trouble-maker on the playground is told by his schoolmates to play by the rules or leave. Every activity, the teacher's marks, all pupil relationships, every subject, even the school building teach young people values of some kind. This is true whether or not there is a conscious effort on the part of the school administration to teach moral and spiritual values. A teacher who sees all students as receptacles to be filled with facts and figures, rather than as individuals who learn at varying rates and in varying ways, is teaching wrong values.

How can the school teach values?

1. Demonstrate respect for the individual child, his needs, and his abilities.
2. Provide situations in which moral decisions must be taken.
3. Provide aesthetic experiences.
4. Provide knowledge of the contributions, struggles, and ideals of men of every age and nationality.
5. Provide training in seeking the truth.
6. Provide experience in democratic group relations.
7. Teach about religion.
8. Develop skills for meeting family, vocational, and civic responsibilities.

The character of a particular child may be better understood by his teachers than by his parents. The teacher has unusual opportunities to observe the child's social relations and work habits. He also knows the standards set by other pupils in the school. Thus he knows the pressures that a child faces in his endeavour for recognition. A teacher is sometimes able to judge a child's ability more objectively than his parents can, and to know whether the standards of work suit his ability. So teachers can help parents by sharing their knowledge of children.

Learning Values in the Community

Unlike the parent or teacher, the community is not primarily concerned with the development of young people. Nevertheless, patterns of community behaviour and personal relations outside the home and school constantly teach social values. Young people learn from the radio, the Press, motion pictures, and television. They learn from their own age-groups, and by experience, observation, and imitation.

What young people learn from the community depends largely on where they live. In cities, especially large cities, personal contacts are few and superficial. Values are affected accordingly. In the 'live and let live' atmosphere of the big city, the conduct of one's neighbours is probably not the chief topic at the dinner-table. Indeed, people may not even know the names of their neighbours.

The values one learns from community life are also influenced by the social groups to which a child and his family belong. For example, children with old family traditions usually attach great importance to established social positions, while other children may be scornful of such values.

Opportunities for taking part in community life are governed, in part, by the social status of one's family—reflecting income,

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occupation, race, nationality, and ancestry. The tendency of many communities to be divided into prestige groups—often spoken of as 'social classes'—sometimes seriously impairs the development of wholesome values. In such an environment the child learns early in life to rate others by the social level to which they belong.

The Role of Community Institutions

In addition to the home and school, other community institutions play a vital role in the moral and spiritual development of youth.

The churches are uniquely concerned with moral and spiritual development. Here the young person, under adult guidance, has an opportunity to examine the meaning of life, man's relation to man, and his relation to God. He seeks to know what is good, what is of permanent value, and in what he may have faith. He seeks identification with others who have similar ideals.

Youth organizations have character development as one of their prime purposes. The success of these youth groups depends greatly on adult leadership.

The Curriculum as a Means to Character Development

Great emphasis has been placed on character education through school subjects in recent years. It is the opinion of some educators that a good school curriculum is character education in itself. A good curriculum seeks to meet and solve real problems affecting life. In order to meet the needs of the child a curriculum must be flexible and subject to revision whenever necessary. The co-operation of all concerned—pupils, teachers, parents, and society as a whole, is required to implement it successfully.

Thus the curriculum becomes a major problem in social planning, for it has as its main objective the solution of life's problems, relating to both the individual and the group.

Hence the entire school system is an education in itself, exerting untold influence for teaching the right principles of conduct through precept and example. The greatest educationists believe that each subject and the method of teaching it contribute to the building of character. The proper study of the subjects in the curriculum should enable the pupils to translate ideals into life and to become substantial citizens.

S. A. KHURAISHI

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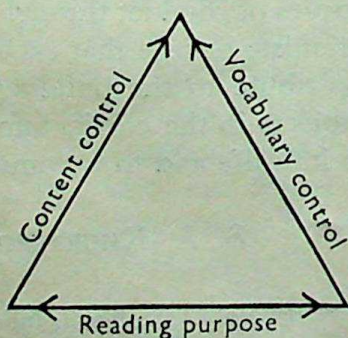
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Building Comprehension Abilities in Arithmetic

A MODERN APPROACH to the curriculum in any subject-matter area requires that the vocabulary as well as the content in it be very judiciously selected. Since the information required in a particular subject-matter area may be needed in many other areas, adjustment is sometimes necessary. Every subject-matter area requires a specific reading ability. Hence the basic reading programme must assume the responsibility for showing children how to read the material they are expected to study. Careful guidance is necessary in reading each content area so that children may gain experience suited to contingent areas.

Foundation for Reading

It is beyond doubt that every subject-matter area presents a different reading purpose. Hence the comprehension that follows reading must necessarily be of a different nature. The child is expected to learn and adapt his reading skill and abilities accordingly.



The concepts and the vocabulary used in a particular subject-matter differ materially from area to area. A child finding a solution to a problem in arithmetic has a different mind-set as compared to his reading a description of a historical event or a geographical phenomenon. The nature of the subject demands different study, skill, comprehension abilities and speed. There is

always a triangular approach which lays the foundation for effective reading in a specific subject-matter area.

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In the first instance the teacher must be quite clear in his own mind about the reading purpose and he must anticipate the vocabulary difficulties of the children, and subsequently he should help in building the understanding necessary for the effectiveness of such vocabulary. Hence it is necessary that the vocabulary burden should always be in direct proportion to the basic concepts needed in that specialized content. The teacher must bear in mind that each field of human experience employs a unique way of recording its organized content. For example, communicating the realities of science, which emphasizes precision, is a different affair from the shorthand of time-sequence in history. Arithmetic stands on yet a different footing. The nature of arithmetic is such that it requires no extensive reading but a specialized approach in comprehending the problems presented.

Reading in Arithmetic

The problems presented by arithmetic are always compact in nature. They require a careful reading, following the directions contained in each, noting their details and weighing them in the proper context. A fast reading speed and linguistic efficiency are of little use in arithmetic. Arithmetic uses its own abbreviations and symbols, such as $+$, $-$, $=$, \div , \times , $>$, $<$, \therefore , ∞ , π , $\sqrt{}$, f , which require a specialized reading ability. The lack of knowledge of such abbreviations and symbols may hinder arithmetical operations. The graphic and tabular approach presents another difficulty.

The specialized meaning of words which are prevalent in arithmetic, such as *vulgar*, *mixed*, *compound* and *discount*, also adds to the vocabulary difficulties of the students. The vocabulary and concepts used in arithmetic, such as *quotient*, *divisor*, *cube root*, *linear*, *gross*, *common denominator* and *decimal point*, find no place outside this subject. The reading equipment required by the child for arithmetic is far less than is required for the history, geography or social studies textbooks. Nevertheless, as in other subjects, the child has first to learn the language of arithmetic.

'There is no difference in arithmetic achievements between poor readers as measured by Standardized Reading Tests.'¹ Hanson found that those children weak in arithmetic were faster readers on the average, thus indicating lack of ability to differentiate speed.²

¹ L. C. Fay, *The Relationship between Specific Reading Skills and Selected Areas of 6th Grade Achievement*. Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Minnesota (U.S.A.), 1948.

² C. W. Hanson, *Factors Associated with Superior and Inferior Achievements in Problem Solving in 6th Grade Achievement*. Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Minnesota (U.S.A.), 1943.

All this shows that reading in arithmetic requires a different skill because of its distinctive character.

Distinctive Characteristics

It has to be admitted that the reading material in arithmetic lacks the continuity which we often find in the reading material of other subjects such as history, geography or English. Paragraphs in the reading material of arithmetic are disconnected and stand in no relationship to either the preceding or succeeding paragraph. The problems which arithmetic presents are short and compact. There is little scope for description in them. They stand in isolation, each a unit in itself, sometimes many on a page.

The numbers used in arithmetic present another problem in its reading material. The numbers break up the natural process of following a thought, because numbers are the instruments as well as the medium through which we are to operate on the problem after it has been read. These numbers thus disrupt the reading habits which have been acquired in other subjects. Since numbers cannot be avoided in arithmetic, the child has not to read the problem but read *through* the problem. It is due to this that reading in arithmetic must be intensive. A pupil seldom reads more than two pages of arithmetic material per day.

Reading material in arithmetic requires ability to comprehend rather than reading ability. In arithmetic pupils have to work out problems themselves and arrive at definite and correct conclusions. Arithmetic material requires thinking and reasoning and not memorizing.

Reflective thinking is always arduous and difficult because it involves overcoming the inertia that inclines one to accept suggestions at their face value ; it involves willingness to endure a condition of mental unrest and disturbance. Reflective thinking, in short, means judgement suspended during further inquiry ; and suspense is likely to be somewhat painful.¹

Consequently the idle pupil who will not put forth the required effort, the dull pupil who cannot do it, and the slow pupil who is generally neglected under the present system of school organization, all find mathematics a difficult subject.²

The arithmetical problem always presents a concrete experience. If the child fails to visualize that experience, mere reading efficiency cannot stand him in good stead. He may be capable of arithmetical operations, but because of his lack of comprehension of problems

¹ John Dewey.

² N. Kuppaswami Aiyangar, *The Teaching of Mathematics in New Education* (third ed., Doaba House, Jullunder, 1950).

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of which he cannot form a visual impression, he cuts a sorry figure when he has to arrive at the solution. When the facts are not seen in their proper perspective, merely reading the problem is of no avail.

Another factor that makes reading in arithmetic difficult is the irrelevancy of some of the data given in the initial description of a series of problems. There may be much numerical information which is redundant to the actual problem. This adds to the difficulty of comprehending the problem in its true perspective.

Mishandling Problems

Failure to solve arithmetical problems may be due to:

1. Faulty comprehension of the problem.
2. Misreading of the problem.
3. Hasty inspection and thus missing sequences of steps involved.
4. A vague approach, where the steps leading to solution are not clear.
5. Inadequate understanding of the compact nature of the problem.
6. Not recognizing significant elements.
7. Omitting details.
8. Lack of knowledge of the arithmetical operation.

The Effective Way

Since the child is to be trained to read the problem with care and exactness, the teacher should make efforts to enable the child to reorganize the arithmetic material in such a way that he answers the following questions relevant to the problem in hand:

1. What has to be found out?
2. What are the relevant data?
3. How are these data to be reorganized?
4. What will be the first step in solution?
5. How are the subsequent steps to be built up?
6. What is the probable answer?
7. How can the answer be verified and checked?

Hence, in order to build comprehension ability in arithmetical reading, a good procedure will involve the following stages:

1. The child should first read the problem rapidly and form a general impression.
2. The child should enter into the concrete experience presented and ascertain what is to be found out.
3. He should re-read the problem.

4. Facts relevant to the solution should be isolated.
5. He should establish the relationship between the facts thus isolated.
6. He should determine how the given data are to be operated upon.
7. Necessary numerical computation should then be taken in hand.
8. Care should be taken that the calculation work is correct.
9. A solution must be arrived at.
10. He must see that this solution is tenable.
11. He must check and verify the solution.

If the above suggestions are adopted, there is ample scope for a low achiever in arithmetic to improve his score. Teachers are expected to train the child in such a way that thinking in arithmetic according to the above stages becomes a habit. Surely such steps will build comprehension ability in arithmetic on a sounder footing.

K. K. VERMA

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A Substitute for Religious Instruction

ORIGINALLY education was mainly religious instruction and the practice of religion in daily life. But as secular knowledge began to increase, religion lost its foothold in education. Our forefathers lived largely in closed societies and they were not bothered about religions other than their own. But today, in a secular state, religious instruction can only be imparted indirectly. Moral instruction, which helps the child to acquire worthwhile social experiences, does not serve the purpose of religious instruction, which touches the soul. However, there is a link between moral values and religious values. Moral values do not actually initiate us into religion, but they serve as an introduction to religion. They make the teachings of religion more universally acceptable. A child learns only by doing, by concrete evidence, and so the practice of moral values is psychologically the first step to religious consciousness.

While the teaching of religious ritual can be left to parents and to the church, the school can inculcate spiritual values in children without offending the sentiments of any religious group. The child must first learn to live with his brethren and understand others before he tries to see God.

The need for religion, like the need for many daily requirements, must be taught to children. As the child sees how money comes into everyday life, so also he should see that religion and religious practice are a part of his life. The need for religion can best be created in the home. A school that is not boldly denominational need not consider the common elements of various religions in imparting religious instruction. Most people know that the basic elements are identical. But the hierarchical order of the elements and their combinations vary greatly. The inculcation of moral values such as love, compassion, cleanliness, orderliness and fearlessness is important in a system which does not give religious education a distinct place.

Moral Values in the Curriculum

Even though curricula provide mostly secular material, it is not difficult to discover ways and means of enhancing the moral and religious qualities of a child by introducing certain routines into school activities. The child can see how personal cleanliness helps to maintain his own health and prevents the spread of disease generally. A nation becomes orderly when its citizens are orderly. A divine gift or wrath may affect a whole community but only individuals experience it. God bestows benefits on mankind but the spark is received by a single soul who is chosen to lead others.

In any activity there is both content and quality. If we improve both, education will work wonders. The quality of learning can be

improved vastly without changing the content. We see that different schools with comparable groups of children produce different results with the same curriculum. Institutions managed by missionaries and residential public schools send out products that are clearly different in quality from the products of other institutions. The moral quality of learning and teaching can reinterpret content. For instance, the Bible can be treated as religious history or as literature.

A change in perception, with or without a change in environment, will result in a change in personality. In a church congregation, some listen to the style and diction of a prayer, some listen to its music, and some absorb its devotional teaching. If we are to insist on moral values, we must be guided by divine perception. The curriculum cannot be changed easily, but the teacher and the school organization should be capable of altering the perspective to give the curriculum moral value.

Concomitant Learning

Someone defined education as 'that which remains after one has forgotten everything learned at school'. We may forget the content, but change in attitude and behaviour remain with us for life. Such concomitant learning is the more important part of education. But the present system of examinations clearly cannot promote concomitant learning. It places information far above inspiration. Intellectual accomplishment is tested by a board of examiners in a static situation. But behavioural changes can only be tested by life itself. It is essential that an education provide opportunities for attaining both excellence in intellect and in character. The training of temperament for the realization of moral values is no less important than the education of the intellect for the realization of material values. A programme of education which encourages the growth of personality will include the study of great books, lives of great men, the practice of concentration, meditation, yoga, and social service.

Design for Living

In conclusion, we can say that designs for *learning* are abundantly available in schools. But there is a great need for designs for *living*. The growth of virtue is possible only by the practice of virtue. A literary education may teach children what is good, but it rarely gives them a chance to be good or do good. We need a constructive programme in moral living at every stage of education to supplement regular school activities. For we cannot inspire moral and religious values when the child is held to the grindstone of a materialistic curriculum.

T. R. VENKATASUBRAHMANYAN

Guidance in Multipurpose Schools

BEFORE WE CONSIDER what can be done by way of guidance in multipurpose schools, it would be worth while to review briefly what has led to the development of multipurpose schools, and what we understand by the term 'guidance' in general and in relation to such schools.

Prior to the introduction of multipurpose schools, secondary education was too bookish, with a unilateral scheme of studies which concentrated on preparing students for the university. This purely academic bias failed to cater for the special aptitudes and needs of pupils. It led to unhealthy competition and problems of unemployment, as it prepared pupils only for white-collar jobs.

With the attainment of Independence, the outlook has changed radically. There has been progressive democratization of educational opportunities, organization, curriculum and methods to meet the new social and political needs. In a democratic society such as ours, education is no longer looked upon as the state's gift. It is rather the state's most primary and urgent need. It is no longer the privilege and monopoly of a selected few. It is the legitimate right of all who have the ability to profit by it.

With this democratic principle, a larger number of pupils is flocking to secondary schools. They come from different backgrounds and have different levels of intelligence. The psychology of individual differences is now a well-established fact. There are differences among individuals and differences within the individual. To meet these differences we must have a variety of subjects. This can be achieved only by introducing diversified courses of studies and by converting a number of secondary schools into multipurpose schools.

In countries such as the U.S.A., the curriculum is designed for the child and not the child for the curriculum. He is offered training to suit his needs, abilities and limitations. In countries such as the United Kingdom the government encourages local educational authorities to provide the widest opportunities for pupils of different capacities and interests by means of flexible patterns and courses. In England the varied abilities of pupils are classified under three categories: academic, technical and practical. Corresponding to these, there are three different types of school: grammar, technical and modern. In India too, quite a few states have made an attempt to introduce different types of

secondary courses. For example, in Uttar Pradesh in 1948, higher secondary education was organized under different categories: literary, scientific, constructive and aesthetic.

Vocational Efficiency

There is another factor worth noting which relates to the reconstruction of education. It is essential for a civilized nation to utilize her manpower to the best advantage so that maximum national productivity can be assured. 'It is well known that planning for the furtherance of economic prosperity involves proper co-ordination between the manpower potential and the requirements of an expanding economy. . . . In an underdeveloped and highly populated country like India, a careful balance has to be struck between the manpower needs and the various educational and training programmes.'

To meet the rapidly rising demand for semi-skilled, skilled and highly skilled workers for the various projects, the youth of the country must be equipped for the national tasks ahead. Thus 'vocational efficiency' is one of the objectives of education, though not at the sacrifice of the happiness and free choice of the individual. Secondary education must, therefore, be complete in itself, give scope for training in vocational or technical education, and serve as preparatory ground for higher and specialized technological courses and apprenticeships.

These and other considerations necessitated reform. Among the many important recommendations of the Mudaliar Commission, the one regarding the starting of multipurpose schools has been of far-reaching importance. This recommendation has been accepted by the Centre and by many state governments as well. Consequently, there has been a rise in the number of multipurpose schools. There has also been an addition of subjects with a technical bias to the curricula of academic schools.

The Curriculum

The curriculum of the multipurpose school as envisaged by the Secondary Education Commission consists of certain core subjects, compulsory for all pupils, and certain other optional subjects, grouped under seven categories. Further, in each optional group there are compulsory and optional subjects. There have been a few changes in these groupings to suit local needs.

When one considers the curriculum of multipurpose schools, one should have a clear understanding of the aims and objectives of the scheme of reconstruction. The provision of varied courses which have a definite vocational bias is not intended for special-

ization in the narrow sense of the term. Instead, each adolescent must find in the school something which draws out his latent qualities. A diversified course of studies ensures that every pupil can find something to suit his taste. The primary object is to provide scope for the development of special interests. Multipurpose schools are designed to make education significant and creative for pupils with diverse tastes and aptitudes. It is not occupational competence that is to be aimed at, but vocational bias, so that after the completion of the secondary course a majority of pupils may take up suitable work and in due course achieve a reasonable degree of competence either through practice and experience or through apprenticeship training. Thus the educational programme in a multipurpose school will not be narrowly vocational, but will have a definite vocational bias.

Probably no term has been more loosely or incorrectly used than 'guidance'. The meanings and connotations have varied from 'specialized agency' to 'synonym for education'. Let us consider this term from the practical point of view and its implications for teachers working in multipurpose schools.

The Problem of Choice

It is at the end of what is known as the 'delta class' (Class VII in some states, and Class VIII in others) that the problem of selection of courses occurs. It is here that the pupil is first confronted with the problem of choosing from the various subjects offered in a multipurpose school. In the choice of optional groups and of subjects within a group, pupils should be given expert guidance.

It should be noted here that guidance cannot be purely educational. The other two aspects, 'vocational guidance' and 'personal or social guidance', are interrelated with educational guidance. So when we use the phrase 'guidance in multipurpose schools', it should be understood as the guidance of an individual in the right educational and vocational direction, after scientifically studying his abilities, interests and aptitudes, and considering his personal and social circumstances. 'Educational guidance' in this sense is 'assisting the pupils *personally* in the choice of their curricular subjects and also helping them to discover their own interests'. The end of the middle school stage may mark for some students the end of formal schooling, whereas for others it will be the beginning of richer and more varied educational activities. It becomes the major responsibility of teachers to counsel a pupil of the latter type on the choice of subjects.

It is apparent that the success of the multilateral courses will hinge upon the care with which the students are guided in the

choice of their curricular subjects. Proper educational guidance helps the pupil to avoid failure in class achievement. By proper guidance correct study habits can be inculcated, and pupils will secure good grades. The result will be satisfaction in and appreciation of what is learnt, and a well-adjusted personality.

Range of Guidance

As we have seen earlier, the very basis of multipurpose schools is an excellent guidance service. Guidance should begin well before the student has to make his choice. It should not come as an abrupt awakening. Pupils should be gradually prepared, and acquainted with the purpose and objectives of the groupings. Before making their choice, pupils should have some knowledge of the careers and occupations open to them after leaving school, and the bearing of each of the courses on the future choice of careers.

A pupil must do more than choose wisely in the delta class. Since his choice of curricular subjects has a direct bearing on his plans after school and determines the field of his vocational interests, he must be able to progress in the courses chosen, and guidance here has a legitimate place in the over-all school programme. This is commonly known as the field of 'developmental guidance'.

Another important stage begins when the pupil finishes secondary education. He must decide whether to proceed to the university, and if so with what subjects, or whether to terminate his formal education and prepare for a vocation. At this stage also he needs counselling. Such vocational guidance should give him an understanding of the demands of careers, and of educational and vocational courses leading to them. Each individual can plan his line of action if he is aware of his assets and how they qualify him for specific jobs.

Thus all three aspects of guidance, educational, developmental and vocational, have a place in multipurpose schools.

Prerequisites to Guidance

There are two broad prerequisites for a guidance programme: (i) collection of pupil information and compilation of pupil data, and (ii) educational and occupational information, its collection and dissemination.

Pupil information, its collection and compilation, requires the proper organization of an individual inventory service and maintenance of a cumulative record card. It can be said that the cumulative record card is the cornerstone upon which the

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programme of guidance and counselling should be built. If there is a guidance tool which is absolutely indispensable, it is the cumulative record card.

Which facts about pupils should be collected, how to collect and compile them, and how to maintain an effective cumulative record card system, would require a separate and elaborate discussion. Only a brief reference is made here. 'Usability' is the criterion for collecting facts.

Importance of Test Data

Courses in the humanities, science and technical subjects make a high demand on the intelligence of the pupil. The social prestige attached to certain occupations also places a high premium on them, irrespective of the level of intelligence required. It is frequently a problem for teachers to dissuade pupils from choosing careers for which they are not suited.

Intelligence tests, group as well as individual, should be used. Achievement tests, if they are objective and comprehensive, are also a good measure of intelligence, because 'intelligence is ability to learn'.

To estimate a student's level of intelligence is by no means enough for purposes of guidance. It must be supplemented by a knowledge of his special abilities, such as (i) linguistic or verbal ability, (ii) scientific ability—the ability to solve concrete or abstract problems, and (iii) the ability to solve practical or mechanical problems. These abilities can well be judged from the pupil's grades in languages, participation and performance in debates, promptness to answer in the classroom, grades in general science and mathematics, and interest in things mechanical.

Interests and aptitudes also require measurement. For this we have only a few standardized tests. But the results of some foreign tests supplemented with our own experimentation can be used profitably. We have no valid and reliable tests for courses such as home science, fine arts and agriculture. The main consideration here must be the interests of the pupils, and the wishes of their parents.

Owing to the lack of standardized tests for Indian situations, we must depend largely upon school marks, adding to these the teachers' observations. A study of the students' marks in different subjects will indicate their strong and weak points. So marks can be profitably utilized as indicators of interest and ability. This means our examinations must be more reliable. We must make them valid, objective and comprehensive, and conclusions should be drawn not from the results of one but from a number of examinations.

Another important indicator which can be useful to us is participation in hobbies and extra-curricular activities, and information regarding vacation and leisure-time pursuits at home.

Non-testing Techniques are Equally Important

We need not depend solely upon testing techniques. Non-testing techniques such as extra-curricular activities, sociometric techniques, teachers' ratings, home visits and interviews with students and parents have an equally important place in the collection of information about pupils. Information from such sources can supplement the data obtained from test results.

Orientation in Different Courses

While the data regarding pupils is being collected and compiled in the form of the cumulative record card over a period of two or three years, there should be a series of orientation talks for students in the delta class, and for their parents, to prepare them for the proper electives at the end of this stage. A detailed programme for such talks can be worked out before the school year begins.

These talks should be in the form of group discussions, and should find an integral place in the school curriculum so that pupils may explore and develop their interests. They should be allowed voluntary and liberal participation in various hobbies. Hobby clubs should be started in the school or in the community. Class visits may be organized to different sections of the multipurpose school, where they can attend classes, question the pupils and teachers, and know for themselves what their companions learn in a particular course. Interested parents may be permitted to visit such multipurpose schools on a prescribed day.

The Choice of an Elective Subject.

By the time the pupil finishes his education in the delta class, he is faced with the problem of choice, and the school administration is faced with the problem of allocation. The procedure now should be as scientific as possible. The choice should ultimately rest with pupils and parents. Parents' wishes are important for the obvious reason that free choice at an early age has limitations. The pupil's interests and aspirations may not have stabilized, and no programme of guidance can be successful without the consent and co-operation of the parents. Where a pupil is fit for more than one group of subjects, he should be allowed to choose according to his parents' wishes.

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One point should be noted here. In a developing country such as ours, there are new careers for which there is a shortage of trained personnel, while other occupations are overcrowded. We should try to persuade our students to distribute themselves evenly.

Guidance in Classes VIII-XI

The process of collecting information regarding pupils should continue. The initial stage requires adjustment to new curricula and situations. Pupils should be helped to make this adjustment through individual interviews. The school administration should take a sympathetic view and provide a flexible programme for the first few months in case changes are necessary.

Guidance at this stage should be developmental. The pupil should grow in knowledge, achievements, attitudes and interests. He should also be helped to develop proper study habits. Pupils sometimes fail not because of low intelligence but owing to lack of proper study habits and perseverance.

During this period, educational and vocational orientation should be emphasized. As pupils proceed and study their elective courses, they should be aware of the vocational implications of their subjects. This can be done partly by routine class teaching if the teacher gives vocational significance to subjects. Every subject of the curriculum can be used to impart vocational information and arouse vocational interest.

There are a number of other techniques for imparting occupational information, such as career talks and conferences, visits to work sites and educational institutions, talks by old alumni, and the use of audio-visual aids.

Our schools can also discharge their responsibility towards India's defence programmes through their guidance programmes. The defence of a country involves more than fighting at the front.

Information regarding careers may be had from employment exchanges, youth employment offices, the Central Bureau of Educational and Vocational Guidance, Delhi, Ama Ltd, Bombay, the Rotary Club of Bombay, Oxford University Press, Bombay, Y.M.C.A. Publishing House, Calcutta, state and regional bureau of guidance, and branch offices of the Films Division of the Government of India.

What State Departments and Industries can Do

Industries can play an important role in matters of vocational guidance. 'Work experience' is a very rare thing in our country. If industries come forward and employ high school pupils in

part-time or vacation jobs, students will acquire a realistic idea of the world of work. Industrial organizations, state departments of technical education and departments of audio-visual aids can co-operate to a considerable degree in the reorientation of courses to suit the needs of our developing industries, in the production of films and other aids useful for guidance work, and in the organization of exhibitions depicting various working conditions.

Preparation of School-leaving Reports

When a student is about to leave school, the teacher-counsellor should interview him and prepare a final report. This final report should give an all-round picture of the student's abilities, limitations, achievements, aspirations and growth. And the pupil should present this report when he interviews a prospective employer.

Guidance is a Co-operative Function

All these guidance functions cannot be the sole responsibility of one person. Guidance in a multipurpose school will depend upon the co-operation of a number of persons and agencies such as heads of schools, teacher-counsellors, parents, employment exchanges, youth employment offices, state and regional bureaux and other community institutions.

For effective guidance every multipurpose school should have full-time counsellors on its staff. If full-time counsellors are not available, we must be satisfied with part-time teacher-counsellors. Such teacher-counsellors should be trained for their job and be given the facilities essential to their work.

While the teacher-counsellor will do the work of a specialist and shoulder the responsibility of the guidance programme, we must remember that every teacher is a guidance worker. His help will be absolutely necessary in the collection of data, use of non-testing techniques and maintenance of cumulative record cards.

R. S. THAKAR

A Letter to the Editor

MADAM,

I was horrified to read the article, 'Science Teaching in a National Emergency', in your March issue. Does Miss Sybil Benjamin really want Indian children to grow up permanently war-minded? It is that sort of attitude which perpetuates hatred between nations, and ensures that wars will never cease. Most of the topics that she mentions are already in the syllabus. Bad sanitation and epidemics occur in peace as in war, and pupils may well learn about them. But to teach them how to guard against the possible contamination of water by an atomic bomb is sheer sensationalism. It would fill their young minds with 'alarm and despondency', the propagation of which was a serious crime during the second world war.

First aid is a very useful educational skill. But does Miss Benjamin seriously think that any Indian child is less likely to encounter a snake than an incendiary bomb? She may think that she is being realistic, and that people who think as I do are impractical and dangerous idealists. But realism can be carried too far, in this case to a ludicrous extreme.

My first reaction to Miss Benjamin's lurid suggestions was emotional revulsion. But they are also quite untenable from the educational point of view. '... the effect of ionizing radiation on living tissues ... on blood cells and leucocytes ... the whole field of nuclear energy ... radar ... supersonic detection ...'—these are only a few of the topics in Miss Benjamin's high school syllabus. One wonders when the pupils are going to find time to learn the groundwork which is necessary before they can even begin to understand these things. Perhaps they could cut out subjects such as literature and art, which are not relevant to the National Emergency?

No, let our schools stick to their job of giving children a firm foundation in the elements of all branches of science. Let the special horrors of war be left to the specialists in the armed forces, the government departments, and the medical colleges.

J. C. W. RUST

Vidya Bhawan, Udaipur

Book Reviews

R. F. MORGAN: *Environmental Biology*, Vol. 1 (Pergamon Press, 1963), pp. xvi+238, 12s. 6d.

Long before man began his study of mathematics, astronomy, physics or chemistry, he began to study living things. In a sense, biology is the oldest branch of science. The study of living things is older than civilization. But biology as an organized science is a recent development. Because of this scientific advance in the various fields of biology in recent years, revised editions of old textbooks as well as new books become a necessity.

The series, 'Environmental Biology', provides guidance for students in the practical field of this subject. It is based on the fact that 'living things are products of a set of complicated conditions in nature which we term environment'. We cannot fully learn about living things without considering the effects of their surroundings and other living forms on them.

In the introductory chapters the author deals with ways and means of becoming a skilful biologist. The text is in the form of twenty-four assignments or directed pieces of work. Each assignment gives the pupils something to do, observe, record and evaluate. Thus, by following the directions carefully, pupils should develop the correct scientific habit of putting into practice environmental biology studies. The first six assignments deal with animals of the soil, air and water. The next six assignments are about plants and their environments. These are followed by assignments dealing with the structure and composition of soil, air and water. The author rightly concludes the book with an assignment on the 'Classification of Living Things'.

The whole pattern of the text is designed to instil good work habits, good techniques and logical thinking. Problem-solving attitudes are

encouraged. The bibliography, glossary and conversion tables are a noteworthy feature of the book.

Most elementary textbooks on biology are mainly descriptive. This book provides a rigorous and scientific approach based on practical work. It is both a useful guide to teachers and an interesting book for those who study biology as a hobby.

* * *

NANCY BALL: *Her Majesty's Inspectorate, 1839-1849* (Oliver & Boyd, 1963), Demy 8vo, pp. viii + 268, 24s.

Her Majesty's Inspectors, or H.M.I., as they are popularly known, form a vital and unique element in the educational system of the United Kingdom. Briefly, their function is to see that the educational machine runs as smoothly and efficiently as possible, to act as the eyes and ears of the Ministry of Education, and to plan and initiate progress in the field. They have great prestige, and are regarded not as inquisitors or as despots, but as the guides, friends and philosophers of local education authorities, principals, teachers, and the community at large.

That this happy state did not always exist is apparent after a study of the above monograph, which deals with the origin and early development of the Inspectorate. It describes a critical period of its development against the background of a most formative decade in the educational history of the United Kingdom. In this carefully documented and objective study of the work of the early Inspectors, both as individuals and as a body, Miss Ball spotlights the troubled beginnings of the Inspectorate, and the violent opposition it encountered from the churches, which saw in it a device to 'make schools and teachers completely amenable to the opinions, crotchets and arbitrary orders of the Committee' of the Privy Council, which was responsible for the supervision

of education before the establishment of the Board (later the Ministry) of Education. She goes on to trace how the Inspectorate, under the enlightened leadership of Sir James Shuttleworth, gradually disarmed opposition, freed itself from the denominational control of the churches, and was steadily transformed into a body of trusted educational advisers whose visits were welcomed. The author gives the credit for the transformation largely to certain enlightened church leaders, to the able administration of Shuttleworth, whose *Instructions to Inspectors* in 1839 set the pattern for their work, and to the ability and discretion of some of the early Inspectors, such as Tremenheere and Allen, who interpreted Shuttleworth's enlightened ideas with vision and a sense of responsibility.

The function of the Inspectorate, according to Shuttleworth's *Instructions*, was not merely to investigate and report on the method and manner of instruction, or the character and discipline of grant-aided schools. It had also to encourage local enterprise by spreading the latest ideas and methods. Inspection was thus 'not a means of exercising control but of affording assistance, not as operating for the restraint of local effort but for its encouragement, and its chief object will not be attained without the co-operation of the School Committees'. What a wealth of educational wisdom and insight is summed up in Shuttleworth's *Instructions*, which might have been issued in 1939 instead of a century earlier. This advice has been faithfully followed in the United Kingdom, as a result of which Her Majesty's Inspectors enjoy their present position of trust and responsibility. Is it too much to hope that these suggestions, suitably adapted and brought up to date, might yet serve to inspire the Inspectorate in our own country, which has a long way to go before it can command the respect, and rival the achievements, of the H.M.I.?

E. T. WOOD: *English Verbal Idioms* (Macmillan, 1964), Crown 8vo, pp. vi + 325, 18s.

This book is expressly intended, in the first place, for foreign students. Its aim is to explain and give examples of the use of those common English verbal idioms which cannot be readily understood even when the student knows all the constituent words. For example, 'Put up your hand' will be readily understood, while 'To put someone up for the night' may not be. Probably, more important than the explanation of phrases is the careful definition of the shade of meaning which goes with each preposition: this always presents a difficulty for the foreigner and quite frequently for the native speaker. Dr Wood explains in his admirable preface that he has omitted those so-called idiomatic phrases as 'killing the fatted calf' or 'greasing the palm', rarely used by the native speaker but frequently found in old-fashioned books on English grammar and composition from which they are all too often culled and misused by foreign students.

In India, where the countrywide process of communication in English is frequently hindered by imprecise usage and consequently blurred meaning, this book might appear to have a very useful function to fulfil. It has, however, a number of serious drawbacks.

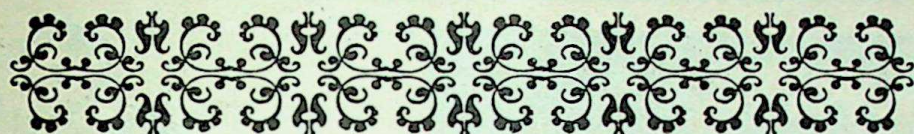
It does not always succeed in what it sets out to do as a work of reference. The foreign student might well have difficulty in understanding some of the highly technical grammatical explanations of the idioms given: '... perhaps the earliest form was *blewed*, a duplicated past tense, and from this came *blew* as a back-formation in the present and infinitive'. Moreover, despite his good intentions expressed in the preface, Dr Wood has included a large number of expressions such as 'beat about the bush' and 'blow one's own trumpet' which definitely smack of 'fatted calf'

and 'greased palm'. Such idioms are limited in application and, should the student have need of them, are to be found in any dictionary. The examples given for slang idioms are in several cases couched in formal English which gives an odd impression to the native, and a false one to the non-native, speaker: '... perspiring and breathless, we belted up the station approach....' The student might also be confused by certain usages which are apparently northern English (Dr Wood teaches in Sheffield): 'go off' as in 'I wonder what's going off over

there?' sounds alien to the southern ear.

One final point: as might be expected, almost all the expressions listed are to be found in such a standard work of reference as the *Concise Oxford Dictionary*. That by itself certainly does not mean that the book is redundant: here the information is easy to get at (there is a good index), set out in large agreeable type, and explained in some detail. But I wonder whether many students or institutions in India can afford this comparatively expensive book.

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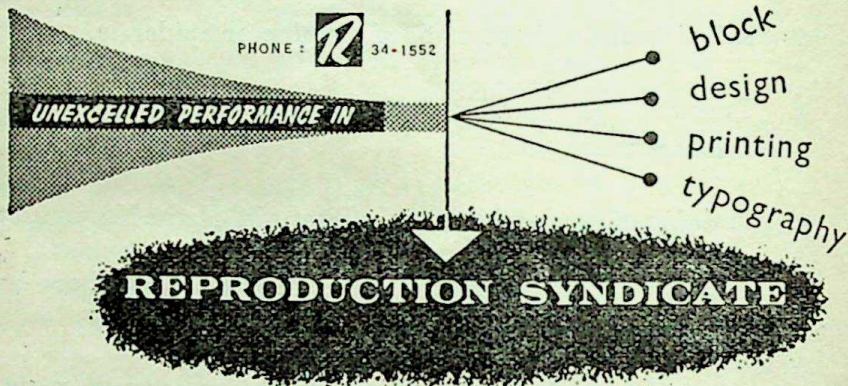
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TEACHING

A QUARTERLY TECHNICAL JOURNAL
FOR TEACHERS



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DECEMBER 1964

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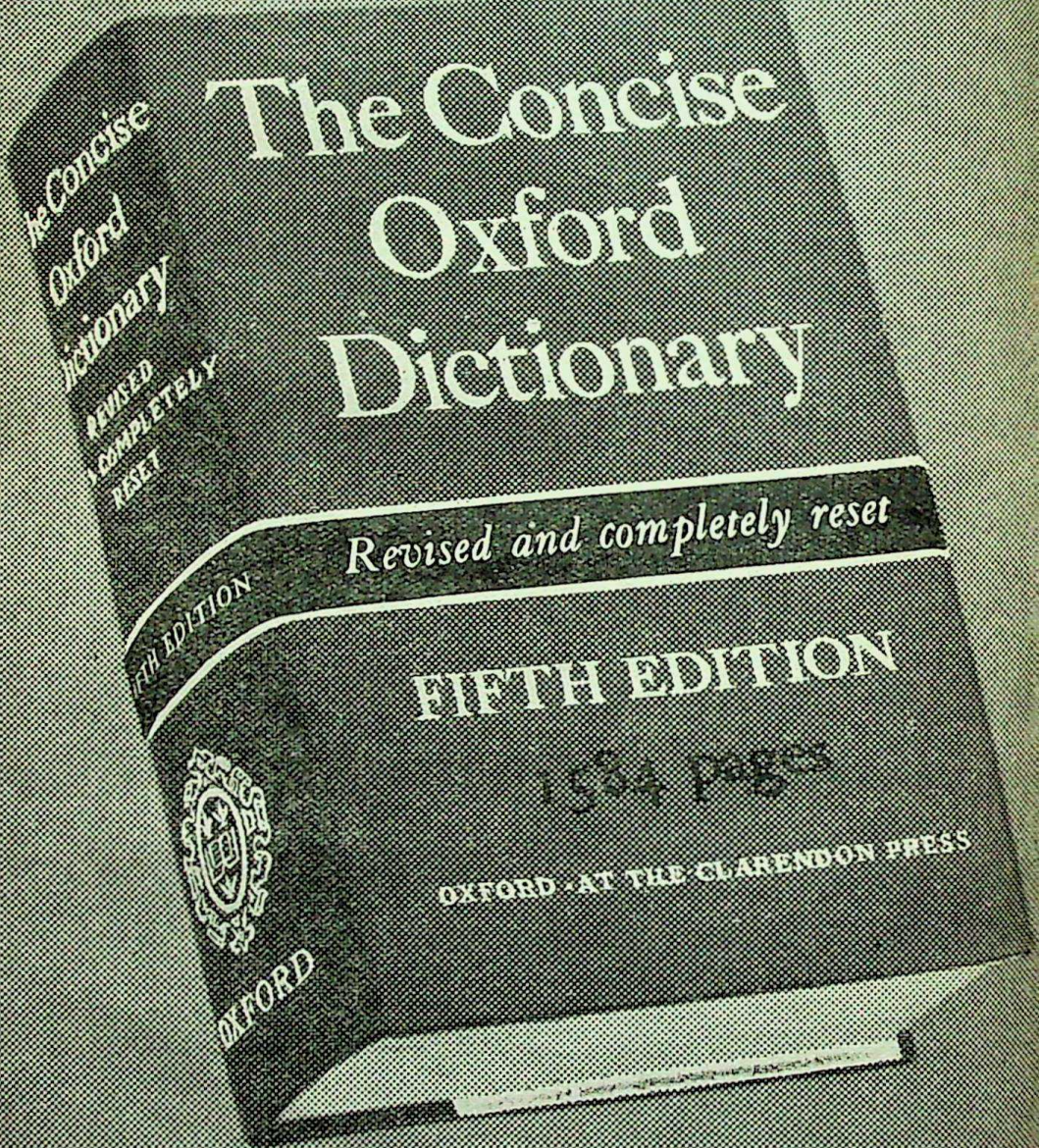
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TEACHING

A QUARTERLY TECHNICAL JOURNAL FOR TEACHERS

Editor: MARGARET BENJAMIN

VOL. XXXVII

DECEMBER 1964

No. 2

A New Approach to the Teaching of Reading with the Initial Teaching Alphabet

ONE OF THE HARDEST THINGS we learn to do in our whole lifetime we learn before our seventh birthday—we learn to read. We learn that a series of black marks on white paper convey thought. We learn to extract that thought. Most of us learn, in the process, to translate the black marks into spoken language, so that ear and eye together help to reach the thoughts conveyed.

But—and it is to the English language above all that this ‘but’ applies—a whole catalogue of inconsistencies and variations have to be discovered and mastered in the process. Small wonder that many children are slow to learn, and many never really make the grade.

Here are a few of those inconsistencies.

1. Variations in letter formation. The word AND can also be written And, and, &, *and*.

The picture



may bear the label HOUSE, house, House,

house.

2. Vowels are not always pronounced the same way. O sounds differently in top, home, to, two, one, women. Bomb does not rhyme with tomb or with comb.

3. Consonants are as bad. Witness the s in sink, rise, vision; and the c in cut, city, cello.

4. Some letters, as the b in comb or the g in high, are silent, and have in fact to be ignored.

5. One sound has many possible spellings—rode, road, rowed; mete, meet, meat.

So we are in fact expecting our five- and six-year-olds to master the written language, and lest they find the task too easy we place in their way endless traps and obstacles in the shape of exceptions, variations and inconsistencies.

Sir James Pitman has had the vision and the inspiration to see that if only we could remove these obstacles from our children's path, in the preliminary stages, the young learner-reader could have the thrill of reading, the sense of accomplishment and the confidence which comes from the power to help himself much sooner than is at present possible. Time enough later to master the English inconsistencies of spelling and calligraphy; but to begin with we should reduce the written language to a simple, reasonable form that children can figure out for themselves.

Basically, all that is needed is a revision of the alphabet, preferably supported by a wise and informed teaching approach.

Instead of twenty-six letters, each with several alternative sounds, and overlapping with each other, we will now have forty-three letters and composite letters, and only one sound to each. This forty-three letter alphabet is called the Initial Teaching Alphabet, or 'i.t.a.'. The modified r does not count as an additional character.

The new letters in the alphabet are:

ŋ as in sing: siŋ

ɣ as in has: haɣ

ʔh as in that: thaʔ

ʔh as in thin: thiŋ

ʧ as in chair: ʧæɹ

ʃh as in ship: ʃhiʔ

ʒ as in television: televiʒon

r as in sir: siɹ

wh as in what: whot

c and k are always hard as in keep.

s is used only for the hissing sound as in fast.

g is always hard as in gum.

æ as in name: næm

ee as in mean: meen

ow as in boot: bōt

ow as in book: bōk

æ as in boat: bōt

ie as in side: sied

ue as in tune: tuen

a as in cap: cap

a as in fast: fast

ou as in mouse: mōs

oi as in boil: boil

au as in cause: caus

One type of letter only shall be used, the lower case or small letter, for we use them most in our reading life, and their tails and uprights give them character: family, hæpfōl. Should we want to introduce the idea of the initial letter being distinctive, it may be written a little larger: murther

Try for yourself to read the next paragraph, and you will see how easy it is, even for one with previous conditioning to the old alphabet and spelling.

the first littl pig mæd his hous ov strau. when the wōlf cæm along hee sau the piglet sittig outsied in a çær reedig his nuespæper. aull ov a sudden hee droppt the pæper and scuttld insied and şhut the dor.

Much of this will be seen to be unchanged. All, in fact, that is already reasonably phonetic. So it is, in fact, only the exceptions and the rule-breakers that will have to be relearnt later, if children are eventually to master English print as in everyday use.

It is this transition from the new i.t.a. alphabet to the t.o. (traditional orthography) that we feel most doubt about when we first meet the experiment. Why, we ask, should children learn something that they will have to unlearn later? What may happen to their spelling in the process?

The answer is found in the experience of those schools that have tried it. They have proved conclusively that children make

the transition easily, in their own good time, with the help of books, notices, newspapers and so on in the regular alphabet. What matters more is that, as the experimenters claim, a greater percentage of children is mastering reading, in a far shorter time, and with greater confidence and enjoyment. They can tackle, at any given age, reading matter far more advanced, richer in thought and content, than the child learning on t.o. The father of the family has a five- or six-year-old rival for the morning newspaper!

As for the question of spelling, it may take longer to assess the effect on that. But in these days when you are liable to meet in the shops such words as Kleen-eezi, Start-rite, and Kwality, who is really to blame if our spelling is a bit unorthodox? It is hoped, in effect, that the very phonetic nature of the experiment may make children more accurate in pronouncing words, and so we may at least avoid some of the erratic spelling resulting from wrong hearing.

This, then, is the new alphabet which has started a revolution in English infant schools. But at once comes the thought, do not we, in our English-medium schools in India, need this method even more than England does? At least in theory, the English five-year-old goes to school speaking the language. But for eighty per cent of the children in Anglo-Indian schools, English is a second language, and children are set to learn to read it almost before they can speak it. Their mother-tongue is probably reasonably phonetic. Now we expect them to learn an altogether new language, and a most inconsistent one at that. So why should we not reduce it to a simpler form, and a more logical one, so that their learning to read will actually help them in learning to speak more correctly?

Let us consider how it actually works in practice. First, teachers should be given an opportunity to learn the alphabet and the method, so that they are confident about it. Short courses of two or three days' duration have proved adequate for this.

Secondly, the flash cards, the wall charts, and alphabet cards, now all an essential feature of good kindergartens, are written in the new look :

nætuer tæbl.
it is ræniŋ.
ar yœr hands cleen?
this is our pœst.offis.

Then there is the reader series to be considered. So far, the Janet and John series, published by Nisbet, has been adapted

The Initial Teaching Alphabet

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to i.t.a., complete with workbooks, supplementary books, flash-cards and apparatus. Another series already available is *The Downing Readers* by John Downing, published by Sir Isaac Pitman & Sons. More important still, should the demand justify it, a series might be written specially for schools in India.

The scheme has now been under experiment for three years or more, with control classes working alongside in t.o.

The results have shown :

1. Children master reading far more quickly in i.t.a. Not only do they get through their reading scheme in less time, they can read faster, and more fluently, and with better comprehension of what they are reading. They recognize more words, and therefore require less help from the teacher.

2. Backward readers and previous 'non-starters' find they can manage i.t.a., and soon become enthusiastic.

3. Children gain self-confidence, and they love reading. This is a method which combines interesting subject-matter with phonetic reasonableness, so that children really want to read the books, and discover they can help themselves.

4. The transition to the traditional alphabet and spelling is taken in a child's stride when he is ready for it.

5. Being essentially an individual and self-help method, there is no need for painstaking memorization of either the i.t.a. or the t.o. alphabet. The old 'A is for apple' picture alphabet is out, as an unnecessary distraction. Class chorus reading is equally inappropriate.

6. Learning to read by i.t.a. actually improves and helps forward learning to speak and pronounce English correctly.

7. There is also a marked improvement in creative writing. Children can build words for themselves in free writing, without help, which gives self-confidence and allows the ideas to be expressed freely and without check.

It is worth at this point adding a word about the effect of i.t.a. on writing. It is an accepted fact with all up-to-date junior and kindergarten teachers that reading and writing proceed hand in hand. In fact, children often catch the enthusiasm for writing before they have got very far with reading. But many of us have experienced the distressing check to the flow of children's ideas which arises from the inability to spell; the forest of waving arms in a 'composition' period as children wait for the teacher's help, and the inevitable evaporation of ideas in the process of waiting. Experience shows that in i.t.a. the thoughts flow unchecked, as the child figures out the spelling for himself. How many budding story writers have started hopefully: 'Wuns apon a tim ...' and

then the teacher's red pencil has thrown discouragement on what was really a sensible effort. With i.t.a. it would not be difficult to get right first time: 'wuns upon a tiem'

Here is a sample of i.t.a. writing done by a girl of six who started school a year ago and began free writing in her first term at school.

this morning when
 ie cleend me
 teeth aul the ends
 cæm out and thæ
 aull went œver
 the flor
 mummy sed ie and
 hav to shall
 2 nue wun get yw

One important factor in the manageability of i.t.a. is that the spelling is consecutive—consistently sound by sound, left to right, which is not so in t.o. Take, for example the simple word 'home'. h-o-m- to rhyme with Tom—but then the final e makes us go back and change the o to œ. In i.t.a. the word is sounded out as h-œ-m.

Now we have to ask ourselves, is it worth a trial in Anglo-Indian and English-medium schools? Or in the teaching of English in vernacular schools? Not only in Britain is the scheme being tried, but also with enthusiasm in the United States of America, in Canada, and more recently in Australia. Should it be tried out by a few Anglo-Indian and English-medium schools willing to make the experiment, and with the blessing and support of inspectors and educational experts? Should we gather a few teachers for a short course, with this in view? By shutting our minds entirely to the idea we may be depriving children of a passport to fluency and confidence in reading; we may find, if we give it a trial, that our situation is one for which such an experiment is eminently applicable.

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The use of i.t.a. up till now has been, of course, very much in the experimental stage. So much so that books and material have only been available to schools taking part in the experiment. The reasons are, first that there was to begin with, a limited amount of material ready; and secondly that some control on the experiment is essential if a report is to be made and statistics prepared. Furthermore the cause might only be hindered if untrained, perhaps misinformed teachers were to try it out on their own.

But from what one can judge from the press and from radio and television as well as from personal observation, we may be witnessing an advance in reading method of far-reaching importance.

Let me end by quoting a writer in the *i.t.a. jurnal* for December 1963, on her experience in her own school:

'I didn't want to do it. I'm glad that I did. I have seen anxiety and failure turn to joy and success. I have seen hesitant, inarticulate children become self-confident with an astonishing command of speech, and I know that they hold in their small hands the key to their great heritage of literature and of knowledge.'

PHYLLIS N. JOHNSON

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Sir James Pitman: *The Future of the Teaching of Reading* (Pitman Press)

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John Downing: *The i.t.a. Experiment* (Evans Bros.)

John Downing: *The Initial Teaching Alphabet* (Cassell)

i.t.a. jurnal (i.t.a. Foundation). Subscription only.

Further research material is available from the Reading Research Unit, University of London Institute of Education, Malet Street, W.C. 1.

Equipping a School Library

IN THIS ARTICLE I shall describe a school library that is actually in the process of being planned and equipped. But I shall make no attempt to deal with the administration or the use of a school library.

The Alexandra Girls' English Institution, Bombay, has a large collection of books, running into thousands. This library has been built over a period of a century. Up to the present, the books have been stacked and stored in cupboards, pushed into any available corner, or in the passages of the existing premises, as there has been a dearth of space. It has been felt for a long time that the resources of this scattered library cannot be utilized, and that a concentration of books in one place is essential.

The school will now be able to realize this object, for the new building extension provides a library. The equipment is not yet ready, but the planning is almost complete. I wish to place this plan before our readers in the hope that it will help others who want to equip a library. I would also welcome suggestions from readers who have had experience in the equipping and administration of a school library.

Our Aims

At the outset it must be made clear that what follows is by no means an ideal plan for an ideal library. The plan is made to suit the size, shape and position of the room, and to fulfil our objectives for the use of this library-room.

Our approach in planning must depend on the physical aspect of the library and also on the aims we have in mind for its use. A word about objectives will therefore not be out of place. Equipment, administration and routine are all subordinate to the use to which the library is to be put. Our library will serve a dual purpose for the pupils of the middle and secondary school. It will provide facilities for working from books and other material, either under the guidance of a teacher or independently, for books are still the chief source for acquiring knowledge. But knowledge is raw material. How pupils acquire knowledge, its effect on them and how they use it spells the difference between mere instruction and true education. The library must enrich the subject-matter of teaching. It must help pupils to discriminate, to select, to analyse and synthesize. The correct use of a library must arouse intellectual curiosity. Thus its main function is to provide a means for extending what is learnt in class by further study and reading. The library is *not* to be used as a teaching room.

Its second purpose is to provide a congenial atmosphere, so that pupils will be encouraged to browse and read for enjoyment. Hence

Equipping a School Library

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the physical conditions, that is the room, the equipment and its arrangement, must provide maximum comfort. It is also hoped that the pupils will be trained in methods of operating a library, which in turn will introduce them to the public library system which they may make use of in adult life.

The Library Room

The room we have is almost ideal in size for a school of about 400 children. It is 120 sq. m. (20×6 m.) with seven large windows facing east and a double window facing south. Attached to this room and connected by a door is a librarian's small workroom.

Equipment

1. Book-racks. We shall have open steel book-racks with adjustable shelves. They will be placed along the east and west walls of the room, and the east wall will also have racks of a smaller size below the window-sills.

The sizes of the large racks will be: H 2m., W 1.5m., D 0.3m., and H 2m., W 1.35m., D 0.3m. There will be a distance of 25cm. between the shelves.

The small racks below the window-sills will measure: H 1.5m., W 1m., D 0.3m.

There will be fifteen large racks and five small ones.

2. Tables and chairs. It is intended that the library will seat 35 to 40 pupils at a time, that is six pupils to a table. For the sake of variety we shall have both rectangular and round tables.

The size of the rectangular tables will be H 0.76m., L 2m., W 1m. There may be a couple of lower tables, 0.65m. or 0.7m., for the younger children. We should have seven of these, made of wood, preferably with formica tops. Chairs will be of a suitable height. In addition to these 42 chairs there will be a couple of cosy, comfortable armchairs in which one can relax.

Under the double window facing south there will be a cushioned window-seat running the whole length of the window.

3. Librarian's counter, table and chair. A rectangular counter with a table and chair will be provided for the librarian. The counter will be made of wood, preferably with a formica or sunmica top. The size of the counter will be L 4m., W 2m., H 1m. The counter will have shelves all along the length and width.

4. Valuable and rare books. A steel cupboard with glass doors which can be locked will be provided for rare and valuable books.

5. Periodicals stand. This will be made of steel or wrought iron with narrow compartments in sloping tiers so that periodicals may be displayed upright.

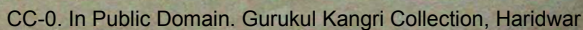
6. A newspaper stand.
7. A steel catalogue cabinet.
8. A book display and bulletin board.
9. Files for pamphlets, pictures and cuttings.
10. A book trolley.
11. Decorative material for the library will be kept at a minimum: perhaps an artistic flower arrangement, an attractive wall plaque, painting or frieze, and a couple of busts of great writers.

The Librarian's Room

The librarian's room is 5.5m. \times 2.5m. The work of classification, labelling and cataloguing will be done here, and the room will also be used for storing book-binding materials and stationery. Gramophone records, films, slides and school records will also be stored here. A work-bench along one wall will serve as a table for the librarian. Below the work-bench there will be low cupboards and shelves for storing materials. A shelf about 2m. from the floor will be provided along one wall.

The plan given opposite illustrates how the equipment will be placed in the library.

MARGARET BENJAMIN



Education Does Not Need Money

ALMOST EVERY SCHEME devised for improving educational standards in India presupposes financial support from central and state governments for buildings, equipment and books. The devisers of these 'castles in Spain' are wasting their time and ours. The government has no money to spare for anything except the bare essentials, such as the pitifully small salaries of teachers. Realists ought to be exercising their imagination to devise ways of improving education without money.

The Starting Point

The minimum equipment required for a school is some pupils and a teacher. Most schools have something more than these, however little, to start with. But I will tell of two experiences to show that even zero is a possible starting-point for initiative and improvisation. I was once given a class with this bare minimum. Sixty Polish boys, separated from their homes and families by the misfortunes of war, were in an army camp in southern England in the winter of 1946. The Commanding Officer put them in a Nissen hut, and put me among them, saying, 'Teach them English!' There was a stove in the room, but no furniture whatever, no blackboard, chalk, books or pencils. The boys, whose ages ranged from 12 to 16, knew no English, and I knew no Polish. They were huddled round the stove, looking at me with indifference or hostility. It was an interesting and challenging situation.

My first brain-wave was to dig up some chalk from the ground outside, as southern England is a big lump of chalk. The walls of the Nissen hut made an adequate blackboard, and so the lesson proceeded. On the second day, each boy had equipped himself with a piece of chalk, and a piece of wall was allocated to each as an 'exercise book'. By the end of a week, progress in English was admittedly limited, but I had welded the boys into a united social group, and the room was full of fun and activity.

Before that time I had imagined, like other inexperienced teachers, that improvisation was a necessary evil, a makeshift second best, and that all problems would be solved 'if only we could afford good equipment'. The short time I spent with those Polish boys taught me the most valuable lesson of my teaching life, that improvisation has a positive educational value in itself. The boys' faces, which had been heavy with sorrow for weeks, lighted up with joy as they improvised their equipment from the materials at hand, a joy which could never have been generated in a fully equipped and furnished school room.

My second example teaches the same lesson. A friend of mine started a Boys' Club in an industrial city. He rented a disused factory

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building, and he and thirty boys spent happy weeks working it into shape. Each boy had his own special ideas, for furniture, games, equipment, cultural activities, and decorations. When it was running smoothly, they made it their ambition to collect enough money to build a 'real club'. When I visited that city again after a few years, the ambition had been fulfilled, and my friend was finding out how mistaken it had been. The happy club spirit had disappeared. The original members had grown up, and the new ones found expensive ready-made buildings and equipment at their disposal, which they used nonchalantly and without affection.

Conditions and Materials

It is obviously impossible to lay down rules for improvisation, as each school must use whatever conditions and materials happen to be at hand. But a few general remarks may be made.

Classroom equipment. Anyone who visits a Junior School can see which class has the best teacher. In this teacher's classroom, the walls are decorated with the children's pictures and maps, the window-sills and shelves are filled with visual aids to arithmetic, models of history stories, and botany collections, all made by the children themselves. In the classroom of the lazy or inefficient teacher, the visitor may see expensive teaching aids, bought with government grants, and Medici prints on the walls, brought and arranged by the teacher himself.

In Britain, recently, I saw the equipment for a new method of teaching arithmetic, invented by an American professor. The equipment, which cost over Rs 50, was a box of wooden blocks of various sizes and colours, and a book of instructions. I was assured that many schools were purchasing it. It occurred to me that any class in India could make the wooden blocks for themselves, if only they had the book of instructions, but I was told that the book was not sold separately. This seems to me a wicked money-making racket. If the scheme has educational value, the inventor ought to make it as widely available as possible.

In the Middle School, multiplying machines, pantographs, clinometers and theodolites can be made from plywood or cardboard. At this stage accuracy is not important. The pupils are only learning how and why things work. A home-made machine gives an insight into proportion and angular measurement more effectively than an expensive, accurate finished product. In Higher Secondary mathematics, a slide-rule made with graph paper and a sine-cosine machine, give the students an understanding of the basis of logarithms, trigonometry and simple harmonic motion, which will help them in their advanced courses.

Books. In the September 1964 issue of *Teaching*, Muriel Wasi mentions a book in which the author, a teacher in New Zealand, describes how she gets her class to make their own textbooks. This is an excellent piece of improvisation. In a Junior School almost every subject lends itself to the idea, and in a Middle School, science, mathematics, geography and social science could be very effectively taught by this method. It requires a lot of planning and skilful work by the teacher, so that the pupils' exercise books become textbooks, from which they can revise, and devise new exercises for themselves. They will vie with each other to produce the best, tidiest, and most decorative work, and the interest engendered by the project will make the subject more palatable.

Buildings. Almost every part of India has at least eight months of rainless days in a year. This gives us an advantage over other countries, which we ought to exploit to the fullest. If every child of school age was taught in the open air for those months only, illiteracy would soon be eliminated, even in Cherrapunji. (Only Kerala has rain all the year round, and its literacy rate is already 25 per cent above the rest of India.) It is not lack of buildings, but lack of teachers which makes this project impracticable.

For the rainy months, schools in urban areas may find empty warehouses, rooms behind shops, police barracks, station waiting-rooms, or other empty spaces. The landlords can be persuaded to lend them free of charge, a sort of educational *bhoodan* movement. This is in fact being done in some cities. In country districts, pupils, teachers and friends can build rooms with their own hands, using any available material, wood, stones or mud. Several subjects such as mathematics, chemistry, physics, geography, crafts and art could be tied to a school building project.

If sufficient teachers were available, improvisation could supply a learning-space for every child in the country up to the end of the Middle School.

I must modify my title to 'Education does not need money up to Class 8'. The Higher Secondary science classes must have properly equipped laboratories, and all senior students must have access to the best textbooks and reference books. Let the government spend its limited resources on them. What is needed in Junior and Middle Schools is thousands of dedicated teachers skilled at improvising, teachers who regard their work, not as a boring chore, but as an exciting adventure. Training courses in improvisation can be arranged, and local advisers can study the available materials and conditions in each district.

In this way we can raise the standard of education in India, and bring literacy within reach of all children, without forever running cap-in-hand to the Treasury vaults.

J. C. W. RUST

The Geography Room

IT IS UNIVERSALLY ACCEPTED that certain subjects such as geography, science and art should have special rooms for instruction. If these subjects are to be taught effectively and scientifically the use of apparatus both heavy and light is essential, and the correct placing of these is most important.

In the school of the future, the geography room must be well planned before the building is constructed. It should seat thirty-five pupils comfortably, and measure about 12×10 m. It must be ventilated by large windows, fitted with shutters that can shut out the light completely if desired. There should not be too many windows, however, as a considerable amount of wall space is required. But there must be a large observation window facing south, so that the sun's position and movement may be observed. This is an important feature in the study of geography.

It is necessary that the light should be completely shut out for the exhibition of films. But at the same time there must be adequate provision for ventilation and for artificial lighting. The placing of maps, blackboards and projector screen must be decided before the lighting is fixed.

The best position for a geography room is on the top floor of a building, preferably opening on a terrace with an unobstructed view of the land around. A sundial, wind-vane and rain gauge can also function best on an open terrace.

The four points of the compass should be boldly traced on the ceiling so that a sense of direction, so essential in the teaching of geography, is always before the pupils. Some geography teachers prefer to have the compass drawn on the floor as it is easier to see.

A geography room must have a sink and running water.

Furniture and Equipment

There must be a fixed place for every piece of furniture, equipment and apparatus. The pupils should be provided with single tables, large enough to enable them to spread maps or atlases. The chairs must be detached from the tables. The teacher's desk or table should face the class and be placed on a slightly raised platform. There should be two sliding blackboards on the wall behind the teacher's desk, and one of these should be marked in squares for statistical work. Maps may be hung on separate map-rails fixed on the wall in front of the class.

A globe suspended from the ceiling and easily lowered is a necessary part of the equipment. It must be placed so that the light from the projector can play on it. In this way we can illustrate the principle of day and night and the incidence of the sun's rays in varying latitudes.

The film projector (16mm.) should be placed at the back of the room and the screen in front, the picture being thrown straight. Thus pupils will be able to see films without moving their chairs or desks. The screen may be a movable one on a stand, or it may be fitted to the ceiling and rolled up when not in use.

The filmstrip projector should be placed in another corner.

An epidiascope is required for projecting lantern slides, pictures, or images of opaque objects in their natural colours, directly on to the screen.

The storing of apparatus is always a problem in any school. Maps should be kept in map cupboards. Rolled up neatly, tied with tape and numbered serially, they can be hung vertically from hooks on the ceiling of the cupboard. A key plan with numbers and names may be pasted on the door of the cupboard for efficiency and ready reference.

Pictures and survey maps may be stored in low wooden chests of drawers. The drawers may be divided into two compartments. The pictures should be classified either by countries or by subjects, each drawer holding pictures of one country or subject. The pictures should be pasted on brown paper and numbered. In the top of each drawer we should have a typed list of the pictures, with their numbers. Shallow drawers are useful for storing survey maps, tracing paper and drawing paper.

A tracing table is another useful addition to the geography room.

An observation table, placed at the observation window, is also useful. A mariner's compass and instruments for observing the sun may be placed on this table.

No geography room is complete without a reference and lending library. Geographical magazines in particular should be placed on a reading table.

A museum is another essential of the geography room. Commercial and natural geological specimens should be kept in glass cases or cupboards which should also contain specimens of minerals, soil, chemicals, agricultural products, wild life and the flora and fauna of different countries.

Exhibiting pictures is one of the methods of vitalizing geography. A picture-rail should be provided for this purpose. A bulletin-board is also necessary for displaying pictures, posters and cuttings.

A geography room is essential for every good school. But a room without a good teacher is like a body without a soul. James Abram Garfield, twentieth president of the United States of America, once said about his teacher, Mark Hopkins: 'Give me a log hut, with only a simple bench, Mark Hopkins on the one hand and I on the other, and you may have all the buildings, apparatus and libraries without him.'

M. D. ANTANI

Stimulating Pupils' Cognitive Processes

THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM OF THE USSR is undergoing reform in accordance with the School Law adopted by the Supreme Soviet of the USSR on 24 December 1958, and the directives of the Soviet Government and the Central Committee of the CPSU. As a result of these reforms new syllabuses and curricula have been introduced into schools and various types and methods of education are being perfected, among them being the activation of the cognitive process in pupils during instruction. This is a problem to which teachers and schools in the Ukraine are giving their attention.

By activation of the cognitive process we mean the use of teaching methods which encourage independence, activity and creative initiative among pupils so as to ensure the conscious, thorough, and lasting assimilation of knowledge, the development of the necessary abilities and skills, and powers of observation, thought, expression, memory and creative imagination. The work of stimulating the pupils' cognitive processes takes place in all grades and at all stages of learning.

Education, of course, is a joint activity of teacher and pupil. The results depend on what and how the master teaches (i.e. on what teaching methods and skills he employs), and on how the pupils work under his direction. The effectiveness of individual lessons largely depends on the teacher's proficiency in organizing the physical and mental activities of pupils during instruction. These factors should be considered in conjunction with the pupils' attitude to study, the working methods applied to the teaching material, and the teacher's ability to work with his pupils.

Activation of the mental process has a vital part to play in the assimilation of knowledge by pupils. They may very well listen attentively to the teacher's explanation, but without active mental processing of the information communicated by the teacher—without analysis, synthesis, comparison, establishment of cause-and-effect relationships, and generalization—they will not fully assimilate this material.

Let us now examine certain ways of activating the cognitive process in pupils by the use of various teaching methods at different stages in the study of new material.

Training Pupils to Apprehend New Matter

In many cases it is impossible for pupils to grasp new material unless they are prepared in advance. This preparation consists in the accumulation of the necessary facts and ideas based on purposive observation of life around the pupil.

The assimilation of knowledge is regarded as a cognitive process of a particular kind which takes place under the teacher's guidance; like every other cognitive process it follows the well-known definition by Lenin: 'From direct contemplation to abstract thought, and thence to practice—this is the dialectical course followed in the perception of truth, the perception of objective reality.'¹

Through the apprehension of objects and phenomena, or their representations, concepts take shape in the child's memory, including both essential and non-essential features of the objects apprehended. Concrete concepts are a support for the assimilation of the corresponding knowledge. In order to lead pupils to scientific notions, it is important that the concepts should reflect essential as well as variable features, that is, the concepts should be as complete, clear and as precise as possible. This is achieved by presenting the class with concrete tasks and questions. It is wrong to think that children have only to be confronted with an object or phenomenon in order to see, understand and memorize it by themselves. Often pupils see objects frequently but have extremely confused ideas about them. This shows that the apprehension of specific objects should proceed purposefully, in accordance with concrete tasks and under the teacher's direction.

For instance, the pupils in Grades 5 to 8² conduct weather observations: they record air temperature, wind force and direction, cloud conditions, rainfall, and atmospheric pressure. The observations are first made by the whole class under the direct supervision of the teacher. Afterwards separate groups of pupils continue them in turn, and the readings are entered on a wall weather-chart. At the end of the month, the results of the observations are summed up: temperature graphs and wind charts are drawn, the mean monthly temperature and rainfall calculated, and the data over a period of months analysed, systematized and generalized. In addition, observation data are used in class in studying the subject 'Weather and climate' and in familiarizing pupils with the different natural regions of the world.

In this particular instance, the pupils' cognitive efforts are activated by the performance of concrete practical tasks and the mental processing of the results (analysis, synthesis, comparison and generalization): 'Look at the temperature graph for March. How did the temperature fluctuate during the month? At the same time, how did cloud conditions and rainfall change? What was the lowest temperature observed in the course of the year? What was the

¹ Lenin, *Filosofskie tetrad'i*, Philosophical Notebooks (M. Gospolitizdat, 1947), pp. 146-7.

² This corresponds to the age-groups 12-15.

highest? What is the mean January temperature in your locality? Compare the mean January temperatures of your locality with those of the Tundra region.'

During excursions the pupils do practical work in addition to observation: they measure the width of streams, the speed of a river's current, or the height of a hill; they collect rocks and specimens for a herbarium. Practical work with objects makes it possible to include the motor analyser in the perception process and apprehend the characteristics of objects which become apparent only in use. In this way, practical work is combined with the mental work of analysis, synthesis, comparison and generalization.

In the classroom, the pupils form concepts during the process of perceiving natural objects or representations of them, and their cognitive faculties are activated mainly by the setting of questions, which they answer on the basis of a careful examination of the objects, followed by mental analysis and synthesis of what they have seen, the establishment of cause-and-effect relationships and generalization. For instance, during a Grade 7 geography lesson on 'The natural zones of Central Asia and Kazakhstan', the teacher displays a wall picture, 'In the Ferghana Valley', and asks the pupils to examine it thoroughly and say what is depicted in it, and goes on to ask questions involving a more detailed investigation and understanding of its contents. Some of these questions are: What is depicted in the foreground? In the background? What kind of plants are visible in the fields? How, according to the picture, could one characterize the occupation of the inhabitants? Look closely and say what is the colour of the soil visible between the cotton plants. What do you see on the left of the picture? What part does irrigation play in the agriculture of the Ferghana Valley? What trees are planted along the irrigation channels? What is the significance of the mulberry tree? What can you say, on the basis of the picture, about the changes in the life and economy of the Ferghana Valley inhabitants under Soviet rule?

The comparative method, fairly often used by teachers, is an important way of getting pupils to think about the objects and phenomena perceived, and to single out their essential aspects. For example, the teacher will say: 'Look at the branches of pine trees and deciduous trees. How do they differ? What do they have in common?'

Comparisons are also made between the objects under study and corresponding concepts: 'You have before you a branch of a Siberian pine. How does it differ from a spruce? What do they have in common?'

The establishment of cause-and-effect relationships is another important means of activating the thought processes of pupils

during the apprehension of objects or processes: 'There is an alkali in this test-tube. To prove this we add a drop of indicator (phenolphthalein). What colour results? (Crimson.) We add some hydrochloric acid. What do we see? What does this experiment show? How can this be explained?'

Pupils also accumulate a stock of concepts on the basis of research work in the laboratory, which help them with the study of corresponding topics. For example, the teacher begins the study of 'The melting and solidifying of bodies' or 'The boiling of water' with preliminary laboratory work in which the pupils heat a small quantity of naphthalene and observe the temperature with a thermometer, recording the results of their observations at 60-second intervals. By observation they establish that the temperature of solids rises when they are heated, remains constant during melting, falls when cooling and becomes constant again during the process of solidifying.

The preliminary notions formed by pupils under the guidance of the teacher or on the basis of their own observations provide a starting-point for the explanation of a new topic.

Active Participation by Pupils

The conscious assimilation of knowledge implies not only instruction by the teacher but the active participation of pupils in this process, by showing attention, interest, and readiness to make the effort necessary to overcome difficulties. To stimulate active study by the pupils, it is important to show the vital significance of knowledge and to justify its essential role in the study of a particular topic. This can be achieved in various ways. In some cases, pupils are presented with a series of questions, the answers to which demand a knowledge of the topic concerned. Let us take, for example, a Grade 5 geography lesson:

'We brought an iron axe into the room out of the cold. After a minute it misted over. Why?

'Is there water vapour in the atmosphere? Why can we not see it?

'Why do we see clouds of steam when people talk in the cold but not in a room?

'We are going to discuss these questions in today's lesson.'

Of course, it is impossible to link every topic covered by the various subjects with the day-to-day requirements of the children, and it is therefore important to develop in them progressively a love of study and a desire to master knowledge. This will provide a sound basis for the development of a positive attitude to study as a permanent feature of the personality.

The pupils' attention can be firmly riveted to the study of a new subject by a clear presentation of the theme and purpose of the lesson.

Oral Exposition and the Cognitive Process

In Grades 5 to 8 new material can be studied in class by oral exposition (narrative or explanation), discussion or independent work by pupils with textbooks. An important way of activating the cognitive process during the exposition of new material is to bring the children's daily experience to bear on the topic under consideration—the concepts, knowledge, abilities and skills acquired through personal acquaintance with the outside world or during instruction. The application of this experience makes it possible, first, to relate the material under study to previous knowledge; secondly, to introduce pupils to notions and generalizations on the basis of the concrete concepts they already have; and thirdly, to make them understand the phenomena and relationships they are studying.

In the words of I. M. Sechenov, the well-known Russian physiologist and psychologist, '... a particular idea can be assimilated or understood only when it links up with a person's individual experience. ...'¹

As investigations by Soviet psychologists and pedagogues have shown, the pupil's individual sense-experience may have either a positive or a negative effect on the assimilation of knowledge. The perception of new material is strongly influenced by the knowledge forming part of the child's personal experience. If this experience corresponds in content with the essential features of the subjects and phenomena under study, it will promote the understanding of the new material. If it does not, it has an inhibiting effect on the formation of new associations or leads to the creation of incorrect relationships, to an incomprehension or misunderstanding of the material studied.

Before taking up a new topic, the teacher will normally explore the pupils' ideas in the course of discussion, enlarging and consolidating the correct ones, and relating his explanation to them. However, inaccurate or mistaken notions are encountered among children and often escape the teacher's notice, to the detriment of the assimilation of knowledge.

This situation was studied in the following way: Grade 5 pupils were given a written and oral examination on 'The features of the Earth's surface' before beginning to study this material. It transpired that children associate with the word 'lowlands' the idea of a low-lying marshy area near a river or lake, overgrown with lush green grass; the word 'plateau' conveys the idea of a flat-topped mountain.

¹ I. M. Sechenov, *Izbrannye filosofskie i psihologiceskie proizvedenija*, Selected Philosophical and Psychological Works (M. Gospolitizdat), p. 447.

During his explanation of the topic in experimental classes, the teacher showed the children the errors in their understanding of those words, his exposition being illustrated by blackboard sketches and pictures, and by questions that brought out the contradiction between the children's experience and the new information. Some of these questions were: Can forests grow on lowlands? Can there be steppe or desert on lowlands? Look at this picture of the Kara-Kum Desert. Find it on the map. By what colour is it indicated? What does green signify on a physical map? In other words, what sort of surface has the Kara-Kum Desert? What vegetation grows there? Can it be said that a lowland is a marshy area overgrown with grass? So, what does lowland mean? What is a plateau? How does lowland differ from a plateau? What have they in common?

The new material was also taught in control classes, with no account being taken of the pupils' previous experience and using the same wall pictures and sketches as in the experimental classes.

A written examination produced the following results:

TABLE I

CLASSES	CORRECT AND COMPLETE ANSWERS (IN%)	INCOMPLETE OR FAULTY ANSWERS	WRONG ANSWERS	NO ANSWER
Experimental	86	13	0.5	0.5
Control	12	52	36	...

N.B. All answers are given as a percentage of the total number of examinees.

Table I clearly shows the superior knowledge of the pupils in the experimental classes. A qualitative analysis of the children's written answers and sketches showed that in many cases the knowledge of pupils in the control classes remained at the level of their previous concepts, the teacher's explanation having had little effect. Further experiments on this subject produced similar results, and graphically indicated the lines to be followed, making use of the pupils' personal experience.

There are a number of different ways of increasing children's mental activity during an oral exposition by the teacher. It can sometimes be done by setting problematic or rhetorical questions. In many cases, the pupils' attention and their cognitive faculties can be stimulated by introducing conversation elements. It is important in this instance, that the teacher's questions should call for not merely the recapitulation of the pupil's knowledge, but

also for comparison, an independent justification of the proposition advanced, supporting evidence, and the establishment of cause-and-effect relations.

Visual Aids

Visual aids are another effective means of heightening the child's study activity during an oral exposition. Illustrations and demonstrations enliven the teacher's narration, arouse attention and interest in the subject, and provide children with a sense-basis for the understanding of specific theoretical propositions (laws and rules), the creation of the necessary associations between the word (or idea) and the corresponding object, and the introduction of the child to generalizations (concepts, conclusions). The content of the illustration is brought out by conversation or narrative. To begin with, the pupils are made aware of the picture in general terms: 'What is the subject of the picture? Where is this taking place? When?' From this preliminary introduction, the children obtain a confused, highly schematic and far from complete notion of what is depicted. They then proceed to an attentive and detailed examination of the picture, and are asked questions which make them pick out the typical, essential and important aspects and features of the subject.

The teacher explains the meaning of certain pictures by narration. Both these methods have their strong and weak points. Discussion of the picture leads to a considerable degree of activity and independent thinking on the part of pupils, whereas narrative by the teacher gives the exposition an emotional touch and helps to enrich the pupils' vocabulary.

The objects represented in pictures (replicas or models) are given concrete and detailed expression by showing the pupils various articles and textbook illustrations, or by making chalk sketches of the main details on the board. For instance, the picture 'Southern shore of the Crimea' is shown in combination with cypress and oleander branches, and the picture 'Tundra in Spring' in combination with illustrations of such animals as the deer and the polar fox, and with specimens of moss, lichen and dwarf birch. In all these cases, the pupils' mental activity is stimulated by comparative methods.

With the method of oral exposition, the teacher explains the most important and complicated aspects of the subject, and concentrates on forming concrete concepts and ideas in the minds of his pupils. But the knowledge obtained from an oral exposition is often extremely general and scrappy, so it must be rounded off by the process of independent work, practice, repetition and application.

Textbooks and the Cognitive Process

In the primary grades the children acquire abilities and skills through reading. By the end of Grade 4, they can normally read a book aloud at the rate of 100 to 110 words a minute—a speed which allows them to concentrate on understanding the text which, in turn, may help their studies in Grade 5.

However, by no means all the pupils are able to understand a text, pick out its main themes and grasp the central idea, and this inability is often a barrier to independent textbook work. Because of their incapacity to single out the main ideas in a text, some pupils have great difficulty in coping with their homework. Grade 5 teachers are therefore faced with the serious problem of teaching every one of their pupils how to make use of books and how to master knowledge independently. In consequence, from the beginning of the school year, the pupils are given the following preparatory exercises during their geography, history, botany and reading lessons: They are first asked to find answers in the text to questions put by the teacher or contained in the textbook. The teacher then divides the text into sections for which the children find headings, after which they themselves subdivide the text and provide headings. The exercises conclude with the preparation of a schematic outline of a particular text. These exercises are usually carried out after a brief oral introduction by the teacher and under his direct supervision.

In the main, the textbooks are used by the pupils, during their homework, for the purpose of consolidating their knowledge, doing exercises, and learning various rules, laws and theorems by heart. Latterly, many teachers have begun to use textbooks for independent work by pupils in class: they ask their pupils to read through the text and recount what it says in their own words; learn rules, and the wording of concepts, laws and theorems by heart, find answers in the text to textbook questions, scrutinize the illustrations in the text, and draw up a schematic outline of what they have read. The tasks set for independent work vary according to the pupils' age, training, ability and capacity for bookwork. In Grade 5, where they still have little of the sense-experience necessary for the independent assimilation of texts and are lacking in experience of textbook work, good results are obtained by combining a short exposition by the teacher with independent work on the text. The explanation or narrative, accompanied by illustrations and demonstrations, lasts from 5 to 15 minutes, after which independent textbook work is arranged.

One of the most effective methods of stimulating the pupils' cognitive activity during textbook work is comparison. For example,

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Grade 5 botany lessons on 'Fungi' were conducted in this way. In the experimental class the teacher, after giving a brief introduction, set the children the task of reading by themselves the section on 'Pileate fungi' in their textbook, and comparing fungi with bacteria and algae, and lamellar with tubular fungi. In the control class, however (with pupils of a slightly better standard), the independent work was unaccompanied by comparison. The results of the lessons were as follows:

TABLE II

CLASSES	NUMBER OF PUPILS	TOTAL NUMBER OF FACTS KNOWN	AVERAGE NUMBER OF FACTS PER PUPIL
Experimental	31	645	20.8
Control	31	334	10.8

Table II shows that the pupils in the experimental class memorized twice as much factual material, although the control class had learned the subject quite well. The quantitative data were confirmed by a qualitative analysis of the answers, and they demonstrate that comparison is a powerful means of stimulating thought-processes in the case of independent work with textbooks. The general practice, in the course of such work, is to compare the study subjects of phenomena with each other (e.g. the rivers of western and eastern Europe, or ferns and mosses), or with concepts, ideas and knowledge lying within the pupils' experience (e.g. the climatic features of arid zones and the climate of their own region). The work is performed in combination with narration or explanation by the teacher, the use of visual aids, methods of comparison and confrontation, discussion, the performance of practical tasks, analysis of illustrations, copying and sketching.

Independent textbook work on new material can sometimes be successfully combined with laboratory work. For instance, trial lessons in botany were given on the theme 'The structure of rhizomes, potato tubers and bulbs' (modified sets). In the experimental classes, the teacher gave the pupils the task of examining the structures in question in conjunction with independent textbook work (without an introductory explanation of the material by the teacher). In the control classes, the laboratory work was performed directly, with a few brief questions and minor tasks. The pupils' observations and comments were combined with an explanation by the teacher: 'Examine the potato's external structure. What do you

notice on the surface?' An examination of the results of the experiment showed that the knowledge of pupils in experimental classes was much more complete, accurate and precise, thus confirming the view that greater independence and activity by pupils during the learning process produce positive results.

V. A. ONISHCHUK

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Education of Talented Pupils in Secondary Schools

A FEW DAYS AGO, the mathematics teacher of the school¹ with which I am associated looked unusually perturbed as she entered the staff room after a mathematics lesson. On inquiry she replied, 'You know those two girls, Jayashree and Soudamini of Standard X. They are the brightest in the class. When a mathematical problem is given to them they are ready with the answer, while the rest of the class require almost the whole period to think it out. While waiting for the others to finish the assignment they spend the rest of the period being idle. What a waste of their precious time and intelligence!'

'I have a similar problem,' added another teacher. 'We all know Medha and Mukta of Standard VII. They are so intelligent that they require very little time to master their lessons. They spend almost half the school day either day-dreaming or being naughty.'

These remarks are significant as they show that the teaching profession is becoming aware of the fact that talented children are often the most neglected. It is hoped that this discontent among teachers will soon result in a quest for ways and means to meet the needs of such pupils, and so stop the appalling loss caused by compelling them to follow the routine of curricular tasks.

The Material of Leadership

No one can deny the need for paying special attention to the educational nourishment of the talented, specially in a country such as India which has recently achieved independence. A secular democratic republic such as India needs high-grade leadership at every level. We need people not only with skill and knowledge, but with

¹ The A.M. Government Girls' High School, Dharwar.

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character, intelligence and social sense. If such talent is neglected, the result will be frustration and maladjustment.

The idea of giving a special type of education to talented children is not a new one. In the history of every country there are instances of attempts made in this field. In ancient India, a special type of education was given to princes and children of leading families. A rich curriculum was drawn up for the training of royalty and highly qualified teachers were employed. The West also followed this practice. Twenty centuries ago, the great educator Plato selected promising pupils at an early age and gave them special training so that they could become the ideal guardians of the state. He chose pupils who had a love of knowledge, ability to learn, moral strength, skill, devotion to public good, and a capacity for abstract thinking. He said, 'We must watch them from their youth upwards and make them perform actions in which they are most likely to forget and be deceived, and he who remembers and is not deceived is to be selected, and he who fails the trial will be rejected.' Intellectual superiority came to be highly esteemed as a requisite for leadership during the Renaissance, the Reformation and the Industrial Revolution. Unfortunately, education for the talented received a great set-back in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, as this era was pervaded by a philosophy which held all men equal. But after the publication of Galton's *Hereditary Genius* in 1869 the attention of all progressive nations was drawn once again to the education of the talented child. As in other fields of human progress, America is leading the way here too. Many societies for the education of talented children have been established in America since 1946. Special high schools, enrichment of curricula, acceleration and honours classes have been introduced. Research and experimentation proceed side by side. Teachers, educationists and administrators are writing volumes on the subject, and others are trying to publicize the scheme in order to bring about a general awakening to this problem. It is high time, then, that the teaching profession in India should consider what can be done for talented pupils within the school programme.

Characteristics of a Talented Child

Talent appears in many different forms at every level of society. An educationist says, 'By a gifted child we mean one who is far more educable than the average child. The greater educability may lie along the lines of arts. . . . It may lie in the sphere of mechanical aptitude, or it may consist in surpassing power to achieve literary and abstract knowledge.' The talented have such traits as the power of abstract thinking, rapidity in learning, insatiable curiosity and a lively interest. They are also endowed with competence, initiative

and resourcefulness. The talented child is a leader among his fellows. He has exceptional ability to think, to perform and to discover. He has the capacity to see things with his own eyes, and is concerned very early with religion. He has emotional stability. He learns to walk and speak early. He is also highly sensitive. On the other hand, the talented child tends to truancy, dislike of school, a sense of isolation, intolerance, domination of contemporaries, and rejection of authority.

Identification of the Talented Child

The identification of talented children in secondary schools is an important responsibility of teachers, though this is a difficult problem, involving principle and technique. Here are some of the methods:

1. The use of intelligence tests. Mrs Leta Hollingworth, a well-known American authority on talented children, says: 'The only way to identify these gifted children with certainty is to apply reliable and valid intelligence tests. Nothing can take the place of such tests in making a census of the gifted.'

2. Achievement tests are also of great help.

3. The best procedure is identification through experience. The teacher should provide opportunities for every child to engage in creative activity. If a pupil is musically inclined let him pick out tunes on a piano. For those who are artistically talented or have a literary bent, material and opportunity should be provided in abundance.

4. Personal interviews with parents are beneficial because parents have an intimate knowledge of the child's behaviour.

5. Observation of physical health and emotional stability is essential.

6. Study past records of teachers and group leaders about pupils.

After identifying the talented, the next step is to tailor their education to suit their needs so that the following objectives can be achieved: (1) increasing the range of knowledge and skills, (2) developing alertness, (3) developing thought, (4) developing the power to work independently, to plan, to execute and to judge, (5) developing a sense of co-operation and leadership.

Educational Techniques

Various methods are used for the education of the talented, though every one of these needs experimentation, observation and research before it can be accepted. The methods are:

1. *Acceleration.* Acceleration through standards is most frequently employed for the education of mentally superior children.

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The most common argument in favour of acceleration is that it improves motivation. It prevents a pupil from dawdling and allows him to complete his education earlier. It makes him more ambitious and develops habits of hard work and study. However, no universal rule can be laid down about the amount of acceleration desirable.

There are arguments against this method of meeting the needs of the talented. The most serious objection is the inevitable physical and social maladjustment that results when a child is placed with others much older than himself. However, the data collected in different countries on accelerates and non-accelerates prove that physical and mental health both in childhood and in adult years benefit by acceleration.

2. *Enrichment of the curriculum.* This is another way of meeting the needs of the talented. But enrichment should not merely mean more work in particular subjects. An enriched curriculum should include subjects which will encourage initiative and originality. The studies should be chosen for their significance to the wider problems pupils will encounter throughout life. The following example will illustrate what I mean.

In an American school the children were given centres of interest around which to organize their activities. The topics chosen were evolution of food, clothing, communication, sanitation, health, time-keeping, and recreational activities. The pupils secured material through their own efforts, which involved a great deal of letter-writing and personal visits to various agencies. In addition, subjects such as foreign languages, general science, handicraft, arts, dramatics and other co-curricular activities were introduced. Half the school day was devoted to the activities of this enriched curriculum.

3. *Special high schools for the talented.* Starting special high schools is another important method of meeting the needs of the talented. There are very strong arguments against this method, the foremost being that it would produce a class of aristocrats. But this can be prevented if the right attitudes are inculcated by the teachers and the talented pupils are given ample opportunity to mingle with others.

There is a great need for such high schools in the bigger towns. In Dharwar, for instance, where there is a population of 80,000, let us suppose that ten per cent attend school. Of these about 3,000 attend secondary school. From these we should be able to glean at least 400 pupils of 120 IQ and above, enough to make a special high school worth while in an educational centre such as Dharwar.

4. *Honours classes* can be introduced with more electives.

Teachers need not wait for these schemes to be considered and implemented. They should attempt work in this field right away. Some suggestions as to what they can do are given.

1. Accept only the best work from a talented pupil. Set for him a higher standard of school performance, because otherwise the gifted child will learn to be slack, as he can accomplish ordinary tasks without much effort.

2. Encourage the talented child to have as many hobbies as he can.

3. Provide him with plenty of books and encourage him to read widely.

4. Clubs for journalism, science, dramatics and radio-broadcasting can keep a talented pupil creatively active.

5. Special coaching in extra-curricular subjects should be given to the talented. None can under-rate the administrative and financial problems that high schools will have to face while engaged in this extra work. The first and foremost difficulty is finance. It is doubtful whether in a country such as India people will come forward willingly to help schemes for separate high schools. However, teachers' associations, Rotary clubs and private individuals may be induced to start such institutions.

The next greatest handicap is the shortage of good teachers. 'The world today is not perishing for lack of discoverers. It has a fair share of able administrators. But it needs most of all effective teachers,' says an eminent educationist. It is the effective teacher with faith in his resources and desire for self-realization who can observe, identify, instruct and guide talented children. Though it is a pleasant task to guide the gifted, teachers need time and energy to undertake such ambitious projects. The teachers of the talented deserve a lighter load of routine work.

Let us, then, make every effort to achieve a general awakening about the needs of the talented and offer them opportunities in the home, school and community. Such efforts will result not only in the conservation of our nation's greatest resource, but provide India with capable leaders in every sphere.

S. K. HULSOGI

Book Reviews

GOTTFRIED KELLER: *Green Henry* (Calder paperback, 1960), Crown 8vo, pp. viii + 706, 21s.

Gottfried Keller, the greatest Swiss writer of the last century, was a secretary of government at the time of his country's national reconstruction after the Napoleonic wars. He was imbued with the long Swiss tradition of democracy and was determined to foster, through his writings, the restoration and development of social and economic justice among his peoples.

Green Henry is the first translation into English of the novel that was his masterpiece. It is largely an autobiographical account of his own upbringing and education, of his early years in the civil service and of his devoted efforts to further the democratic process. The hero, the son of a poor craftsman, draws strength for his mission from the physical beauty of his country, the simplicity of its people and the solid education he received in the cultural arts.

Freedom, he says, must be protected after it has been achieved. Desire for progress must be tempered by realism. Human rights must be guarded against selfish exploitation.

Green Henry is a wise old book, a basic text for new democrats, especially for those with a responsibility for education. And it is readable, for the writer is happily responsive to both natural and artistic beauty, softening the message of social obligation with a deep understanding of the effect of these things on the human soul.

* * *

Quest in Education, Vol. I, No. 2 (Teachers' Club, Bombay, September 1964), 9½" x 7¼", pp. 55, Rs 4 per annum.

This is a recent addition to the long list of educational journals already

published in India. Perhaps one cannot have too many, if one considers the state of education and educational standards prevailing in our country. Good educational journals may help to lessen the lethargy and indifference of the government towards education and also create an awareness among the public.

This biannual appears in March and September, and is published by the Teachers' Club of Bombay. There are three well-known educationists on its editorial board, one of them being the principal of a college.

This particular number contains some thought-provoking articles. J. P. Naik, an experienced educationist, has made an excellent and comprehensive analysis of Planning in Education. Lack of proper planning is perhaps the greatest weakness in our system. Though three Five-Year Plans have been completed, one can hardly see the wood for the trees as no clear scheme of national education has been evolved. On the eve of the Fourth Plan, Mr Naik evaluates experiments in educational development during the post-independence period with a view to improving the methodology and techniques of educational plans. He makes a very lucid analysis, and his article would be of great value if planners took the trouble to consider his reasons for the failure of the Plans in the sphere of education.

The other articles of note in this issue are by Mr Airan who makes a plea for the development of scientific thinking, and by Mrs Narmada Samarth on 'Specific Backwardness and Remedial Treatment'. Mrs Samarth is director of the Guidance and Counselling Service Centre, Bombay, and is doing very good work in the treatment of backward children who do not manifest major educational problems. Mrs Samarth cites individual cases which she has treated, and gives details of

diagnosis, treatment and results, which prove interesting reading.

G. I. Chandavarkar has tackled the perennially controversial topic of the place of English in India. He covers much of the ground already covered by other writers on this subject. He favours an Indian language as a medium, and criticizes the rulers for their hesitant policy in making the change-over from English to Hindi, and for retaining English as an associate official language. While Mr Chandavarkar tries to refute the arguments of the protagonists of English, he feels that English must be retained as a second language. He says, 'We want English and will always want it. . . . We must continue to study the English language and English literature.'

Mr Vajubhai Patel, one of the editors, is a strong advocate of Basic Education and has some proposals for making it more effective and popular.

Four pages are devoted to information about the progress of various aspects of education in other parts of the country, such as nationalization of textbooks and the teaching of science.

This is a good issue, which would have been better but for printer's errors. If it maintains its present standard it should prove a useful organ for emanating information and ideas about education.

* * *

RAY BETHERS: *This is Our World* (Macmillan, 1964), Crown 4to., pp. 48, Rs 11.20 or 14s.

This is the fifth book in the 'Our World' series, but it can well be used as an introductory book to link those already published.

It presents geography for the young pupil in an interesting, vivid and colourful form, taking the youngster from the North to the South Pole and right around the world.

It is a story with clear bold pictures, some in black, others in black and brown. These illustrations are the highlights of the book because they tell the story better than the text, which occupies roughly a fourth of each page. The maps are few, as they should be for a young child, but they are well drawn.

The reader is taken on a journey around the world, starting from London. The author has made a careful selection of countries to visit, because he deals with so many aspects: physical features, climate, vegetation, human and animal life. The typical flora and fauna of many of the countries are well illustrated. There are illustrations of the kangaroo, emu and platypus of Australia, penguins and whales of the South Atlantic, the skyscrapers of America, collective farms of the USSR, and the temples and art treasures of Greece. Natural resources such as oils and minerals are discussed, as also electric and atomic power.

It is a pity that this excellent book is marred by two errors which assume substantial proportions in a book which keeps the text at a minimum. One error appears on p. 36 where the author says, 'All cattle in India are sacred and are never killed for food'. The second is on p. 39, where the caption to the illustration of the giant panda reads, 'China is the home of the rare giant panda'. It is surprising that a knowledgeable author like Mr Bethers should commit these mistakes.

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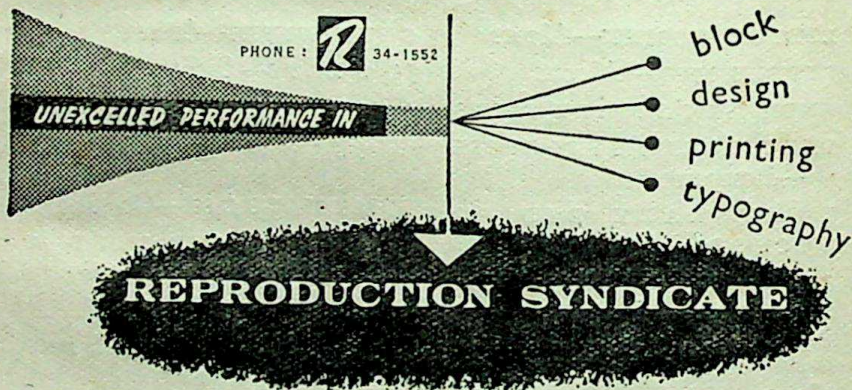
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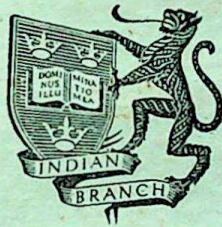
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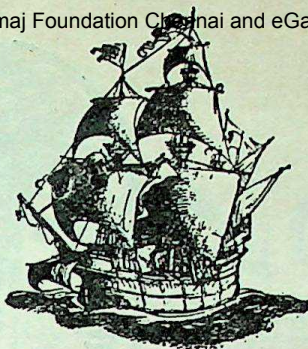
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Editor: MARGARET BENJAMIN

VOL. XXXV

MARCH 1963

No. 3

Editorial

It is planned to publish a special issue of TEACHING on School Organization.

The terms organization and administration suggest control, and control must be linked with conditions in schools to provide effective learning processes and the maximum development in pupils.

School organization is closely connected with several factors. For instance: How far does the environment of a school affect organization? This leads to the question of the relationship between the quality of control and the complexity of organization. It is only under a democratic and delegative type of control that the principal can be relieved of strain. A democratic administration does not imply absence of leadership—rather it provides for more creative leadership which stimulates initiative and resourcefulness in the staff and inspires the pupils.

Education is a co-operative undertaking. It involves all those who are concerned with the training of the young. Therefore it is not the exclusive function of the school. One of the many problems our contributors may tackle is: How the principal can make use of community resources by associating parents with school administration. It is important to establish a healthy, working relationship between the school and the community.

The June issue of TEACHING will discuss the Madras Government's scheme for the training of elementary teachers of English.

Is History a Dull Subject?

THIS IS NOT A RHETORICAL QUESTION to catch the attention of the reader. It is a very pertinent question, and upon the answer, and the implications of the answer, will depend the present and future status of history in the Indian secondary school curriculum.

Under the new pattern of the higher secondary certificate examinations of most states, history has become one of the elective subjects in the humanities. As it is no longer a compulsory subject, the study of history is dropped by a fairly large percentage of pupils, who opt for science, technical training, home science or commerce after Standard VIII. Even those who choose the humanities do not always study history.

Lack of Interest

In the course of school inspections I endeavoured to find out whether students who dropped history had any regrets. I discovered, not surprisingly, that the majority were glad to be able to drop history because they regarded it as a 'dull' subject. What was surprising, however, was that even those who chose history showed little enthusiasm for the subject, regarding it a necessary evil!

If, as according to my limited experience, the majority regard history as a dull subject, what about the teachers? It is harder to generalize here, but the following experience is not untypical. I was recently associated with the State Public Service Commission which interviewed candidates for the post of a senior history master at a government school. Half a dozen candidates appeared for the interview, and in due course were asked the stock question: 'By what methods do you propose to teach history to adolescent boys?' Much to my surprise and dismay, four of the six candidates, all of whom had an Honours or Master's degree in history, started by saying: 'Of course history is a dull subject, but. . . .' Further investigations of an informal nature revealed that many believed the subject was incapable of inspiring enthusiasm among teachers or pupils.

These are disturbing facts. Such indifference will gradually cause the subject to be dropped from the curriculum, or it may remain to be taught as a dead subject by bored teachers to dull pupils.

A Core Subject

Yet, according to informed educational theorists, history and literature form the core of a truly liberal education, for without a vital knowledge of our past, both the present and the future are

meaningless. Especially at this critical period, a sound knowledge of our past is one of the best safeguards against repeating mistakes. Hence all those interested in the study of history must take stock of the unsatisfactory position and devise ways of remedying it.

First let us consider whether history is intrinsically a dull subject. Is the past dead? I am convinced that intelligent readers will agree that history can be one of the most fascinating subjects in the curriculum, that with a little care, enthusiasm and imagination 'old far-off forgotten things, and battles long ago' can be brought to life vividly.

When we turn from theory to practice, however, the picture tends to be rather different. Indeed part of the real difficulty of making history interesting lies in the very nature of the subject. 'It is an inescapable difficulty of the subject that history being the stuff of life itself is a subject for the mature mind,' states the stimulating report of the Incorporated Association of Assistant Masters on the teaching of history in England. No less an authority than Sir Richard Livingstone is of the opinion that a significant study of history is possible only at the university level. Yet history has always been taught, and will continue to be taught, not only in secondary but even in primary schools. Not infrequently, it is taught with great profit and interest by enlightened and enthusiastic teachers. How then are we to resolve this dilemma: that history is in a sense a subject more suited to academic study, yet we must make it interesting and significant in secondary schools? The solution lies first in an appropriate syllabus, and then in the use of right methods.

The Syllabus

Framing a suitable syllabus is a complex task, even if we confine it, as most Indian secondary examination boards do, to a chronological study of Indian history from early times to the present day, set in some cases in a framework of world history. In an endeavour to cover such a vast period, shall we make an intensive or an extensive study? Further, there is the difficulty of deciding what to teach. Shall we teach political, economic, social, or constitutional history? It is true that history should not be divided into these compartments, that its many aspects are closely interwoven. Yet, because time is limited, a teacher must decide whether to emphasize the social, economic, political or constitutional aspects, a task which is made more difficult by the fact that emphasis must differ with the period taught and the age-group of the pupils. In Standards VI and VII, the emphasis should be on social history; in Standards VIII and IX on social and economic history; and in Standards X and XI on

political and elementary constitutional history. In teaching the Gupta period the emphasis may be on social and cultural history, while in the British period the economic, political and constitutional aspects are more marked.

Methods of Teaching History

It goes without saying that there is no single perfect method of teaching history. The best method is the one which the individual teacher can use most effectively to bring his subject to life. A good teacher, however, has not one arrow but a quiverful at his command. We shall later discuss some effective methods, but first let us consider some which have been blacklisted by the Incorporated Association of Assistant Masters in the report mentioned earlier. They are: the pure analytical lecture, the dictation of notes, and the reading and explanation of the textbook by the teacher, or pupils, or both. Yet, as far as my own experience goes, these three are the most commonly used methods of history teaching in India. Is it any wonder, that both students and teachers find history a dull subject?

What alternative methods should history teachers utilize? To answer this question in detail would mean writing another article. But the outlines of an answer can be given. In place of the lecture let us have short, well-prepared oral lessons, interspersed with many questions and followed by discussion and written work. If notes are required to supplement the textbook, cyclostyled copies should be distributed to each pupil to save time and labour. Instead of reading from the textbook in class, let us ask the students to read selected portions from at least two textbooks expressing different points of view. This should prove a stimulating assignment.

Besides these traditional methods, there is a wide variety of direct, lively and imaginative methods to bring history to life. Here are a few: short biographies of eminent men and women; extracts from imaginary diaries and eyewitnesses' accounts of past events; interviews with famous people at historic moments by 'special correspondents'; imaginary dialogues between people holding different points of view on controversial matters; dramatization; excursions; the use of films and filmstrips; the making of accurate models. Perhaps no subject, with the exception of geography, offers such excellent opportunities for the use of progressive methods as history.

AUSTIN A. DE SOUZA

Teaching Good Speech Habits

Principles and Mechanism of Voice Production

GOOD SPEECH HABITS cannot be acquired too early. To be able to converse satisfactorily we require not only words, but the ability to utter those words pleasantly and audibly. If education is to be roundly successful, therefore, it must equip the pupil with a facility for making audible and articulate sound. The basic principles involved can be worked into the ordinary school curriculum. They can be given care and attention in any class.

It is the rare child who has an instinctive regard for big and beautiful sounds. The average child appears not to be interested in making pleasant sound or in listening for it. It is part of his education to be made aware of it. We have all seen children wince before a shrill or harsh adult voice. The same child will fall asleep before a leisurely, uninspired, bored voice. Our desire is to teach the child to recognize *why* some sound is pleasant while other sound is unpleasant.

Good instrumental sound of any kind results from skilful use of the instrument concerned. The voice is an instrument—and a very wonderful one. Its use is a skill, which, like all skills, must be acquired by means of observation, study and practice. The mechanics of speaking involve the breath, the jaw, the lips and the tongue, and several resonating areas in the throat and nose.

It is interesting to reflect that the mechanical processes of speech are in fact an overlaid function. Overlaid because the mechanism involves organs which originated for purposes other than speech. For instance, our lungs are primarily intended for the work of replenishing the body with air and oxygen, our larynx is a stopper provided to keep out foreign matter from the lungs, our nostrils are to smell with and to breathe through, our jaw, tongue, teeth and hard palate are often engaged in the process of eating. Over the years of evolution man has learned to make these organs do a double duty.

The natural functions of breathing, smelling and eating are perfectly performed without thought, but the speech mechanism cannot be left to chance. To produce good speech the mechanism must be trained and disciplined. And since we learn better if in addition to being told *what* to do we also understand *why* we are doing it, it is perhaps worth revealing to children how speech happens.

Relaxation

It is a fact that most poor speaking results from nervousness, from tension. The first lesson in speech awareness should therefore

be directed towards relaxation. Every teacher knows that a tense child cannot think properly. Neither can it breathe naturally. When we are tense our breathing is shallow and 'breathy'. Shallow and puffy breath will not permit a tuneful, toneful, fulsome voice.

If we relax properly we breathe naturally. Conversely, if we breathe naturally we are helped to relax. To illustrate this point try a simple experiment. Invite your children to act like imaginary wooden dolls. Make it a game in which the entire class joins. Then invite the wooden dolls to relax and become rag dolls, thoroughly limp with not a straw or stuffing anywhere. Now invite a controlled return to the state of splendid 'walkie-talkie' dolls.

After an experiment of this kind it will become obvious that relaxation depends on a free supply of breath, and good speech relies on a relaxed chest area. The relaxed child can be asked to pay more attention to posture. An erect yet easy posture is important in speech, for without it the lungs are cramped and cannot be used properly. To help open the chest area, to create awareness of where breath comes from, there is a simple game to play. Keeping the shoulders down, and the stomach in, we think ourselves tall. We imagine that our face is long. This 'think' process pulls the back straight, immediately releasing constriction in the lung area. With the lungs unconstricted, voice power will immediately increase. After such an exercise an invitation to the class to breathe in and then breathe out, making the sounds 'o' or 'ah' as they do so, will produce wonderful results. A child consciously unconstricted perhaps for the first time in his life will discover in this way the joy of breathing deeply. He might possibly apply his newly found noise power to whatever oral work he is doing.

Games and all physical exercise are good for breathing and lung development. Indeed the health of a child can be severely impaired when the lungs are not exercised thoroughly and regularly. In the absence of playing fields breathing exercises should be given in the classroom.

Exercises for Breathing

Many children are 'neck breathers'. That is, their lungs correctly perform the job of bellows but the outgoing breath is stoppered in the throat. Out of habit they are no longer able to relax the very strong muscles in the throat and allow their breath to escape in one long stream.

Breathing exercises are designed to create an awareness of the muscular activity involved. They can be simple and are fun to do. If you put your hands on the lower rib cage, breathe in, then

breathe out, you will find that the ribs expand. Now with the mouth closed breathe in through the nose. Breathe out with mouth open. All intaken breath should be allowed to escape in one long, controlled stream. Since breath controls voice we must first learn to control the breathing muscles. We must concentrate on breathing in and out from the centre of the body, while learning to relax the throat area, firmly holding the shoulders down.

A simple demonstration of breath control is to breathe in to a mental count of 1, 2, 3, 4, and then breathe out to the same measure. Breath control can be exercised in several ways: for instance, by breathing out to a prolonged hum (which is good exercise for the lip muscles); or by breathing in to a count of three, holding the breath to a count of three, and finally exhaling to a count of three. The breath should flow smoothly, without jerks.

A stumbling-block to clearly articulated speech arises from clenched jaws. When concentrating, many children clench their teeth, thus constricting jaw movement. Whenever a teacher becomes aware of this condition, that moment is the time to call attention to it. (It goes without saying that individual attention to a speech fault should always be avoided. If a fault is observed in one child it is likely others in the class will be suffering to some degree from the same complaint.) The remedy for stiff jaw is quite easy and involves exercise which again is fun. Invite the children to yawn, deeply and thoroughly. While relaxed tell them to drop the lower jaw and shake the head, gently at first until feeling free to go faster. When this is over, tell them to nod, again with the mouth open, adding a sound, perhaps 'ah', as they do so. Continue the nodding, bringing the lips into play. The mouth can be pursed, made to smile. Watch carefully throughout the exercise for strain. All muscles other than those in use should be relaxed, the shoulders held well down, the back straight. These exercises relate to the formation of vowels and consonants. The child becomes aware of jaw, mouth and lips in use. He begins to realize what these very ordinary parts of him can do.

If you can bear to look at many tongues all at once, an exercise children enjoy and one which is helpful in learning the 'feel' of relaxation, is 'tongue poking'. The tongue is poked out, and pulled in again, until it is tired. This exercise can be followed by another where the tongue is curled at the tip, then at the sides. After the exercise the tongue is allowed to slip back into its correct place in the mouth—a place very comforting to children who normally keep it anywhere but where it should be. This exercise, let it be said, is of great benefit to teachers. A tired tongue likes to sit still.

Simple exercises of this kind can be practiced daily. More are to be found in handbooks for the student of speech. In the cities these books can be seen in the excellent libraries run by the British Council and the United States Information Services. Some booksellers, too, stock them.

Expressing Emotion

It is said that 'to learn to express an emotion is to learn to control that emotion'. This thought brings us to mime. Most speech handbooks devote a chapter to the subject, which is indeed a grand occupation for children. It exercises so many faculties connected with speech, although of course while practising it speech is not used at all. In acting mime, children exercise themselves in three ways: in relaxation and breathing, and in expressing a feeling or an action. They develop the imagination, learning to *feel* and to give *meaning* to the written word.

In some schools mime is made part of the music class. It is exercised during that part of the period devoted to rhythm and mood response. Musical mime aids hearing development, and is thus an aid in achieving good speech. As a result of an exercise in mimed emotions, a marked improvement in recitation is usually observed. Having learned how emotions *feel*, a child gives more expression to the spoken word.

These then are the basic conditions for good speech: attention to posture, awareness of being relaxed, full use of the lungs, a facility for observing and listening. Each can be developed and practiced in any kind of class and at any kind of lesson without the child being aware that another subject has been added to the curriculum.

How to Develop Meaningful Speech

But how is good speech achieved, once the conditions for making it are established? The answer is, with exercise, until conscious control becomes a habit. It is in the singing class that children usually make a start towards recognizing and controlling the sounds they utter. While singing they become aware of the value of vowels and diphthongs and the terseness of consonants. Once a child has been shown the way to achieving a sound, and has enjoyed making it, then that sound should be practised in speaking. The music teacher and the language teachers, in fact all teachers in the staff room, might helpfully work together in getting the sung sounds practised. Use again can be made of methods described in the speech handbooks. For example, we might add a consonant in front of a practiced vowel, say, 'o', to make 'w-o', 'g-o', 'l-o'.

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There are books of jingles designed just for the purpose, with verses arranged to exercise a sound at a time. The exercise can be varied in volume, in speed, and in emotion. Children enjoy repeating simple verses, changing the mood from, say, anger, to depression, to anxiety. Here is an example of such a verse for English-speaking juniors: 'Oh, dear oh! My cake's all dough. And how to get it better I do not know.' Once the value of vowels and consonants is realized, a child will be interested in 'playing' with them.

Volume, tone and pitch are all built up and controlled by breathing. In reciting jingles and rhymes opposite in emotion, a child can be helped to recognize and control the degree of softness or loudness required for different situations. Prose and poems strong in emotion, calling even for abandon, can be contrasted with the need for quiet, restrained speech. By emotional recitation a child also learns to relate words to scenes, to give real meaning to sounds he would otherwise chant. He learns the use of different voice levels, contrasting that used for ordinary conversation with the differing and special emotions of joy, excitement and sadness.

Intelligent inflection calls for a good, responding ear, as well as for controlled speech. Children, especially when reciting, find it difficult to inflect meaningfully. We all know the adage, 'It isn't so much what you say as the way you say it.' How many times have you responded to the simple word 'yes' with the thought, 'Now what did he mean by that?' This single word, 'yes', can be used positively, enigmatically, interrogatively, hesitantly, doubtfully, scathingly, ironically—and even by some to mean 'no'! Although young children cannot be expected to grasp all the possible variations in inflexion, they can be encouraged to use three or four. Simple sentences such as, 'Did he *come*?' or 'That's what *you* think!' can be used to exercise children in its use. The subtler shades of expression belong to an advanced stage of voice manipulation, but beginnings can be made in the junior school.

Listening and Hearing

In reading aloud, senseless expression is aggravated by incorrect phrasing. Children do not as a rule phrase easily. A well-schooled child will, it is true, phrase by punctuation, yet he may give little or no attention to any change in idea or situation. It is not easy for him to understand that words are grouped together in phrases in order to separate one idea from the next, or that a punctuation pause can be a break for effect. Reading aloud as an exercise in communication should give the child the joy of response from a listening audience. He should be made to realize that he is being

asked to share an experience; that the words are more than symbols and sounds through which he must stumble without expression.

As a term project with older children, group-reading is a splendid way to exercise good speech habits. A special book should be kept for regular periods of reading aloud. After the teacher has taken his turn in reading—to break the ice of shyness, to set the mood and rhythm of the piece—the children will enjoy following on turn by turn, until the book is finished. Once a 'term' book is under way, the children themselves will make sure the reader is audible and articulate. They will not be cheated of a story they are enjoying. Group-reading is also an aid to concentration, to listening. By listening the hearing is developed.

As an alternative to listening to others, the readers should sometimes be invited to listen to themselves. It is a remarkable fact that we do not at all hear ourselves as others hear us. If the voice is pleasant, warm, and audible, how much improved the total personality must be! Children should be invited to judge their voices for themselves. Most faults can be corrected with a little knowledge and a little practice. A child will soon learn that a few words spoken well have a greater impact than any amount of slovenly or slipshod speech.

The basic principles of good speech are simple—and painless to absorb. If you can help your children to good speech habits now, you will be helping them towards a well-balanced, as well as well-informed, adult personality.

FREDA E. TOYNE

Science Laboratory Equipment for Secondary Schools

GENERAL SCIENCE is now accepted as an essential component of the curriculum for the 11 to 14 age-group. General science, physics, chemistry and biology are particularly important subjects for the 14-year-old group.

The organization of science teaching in secondary schools involves a number of problems, the most important of which relate to the teacher, his initial training and the maintenance of his competence at a high level. Another important problem is the establishment and maintenance of a number of teaching laboratories and simple science teaching units.

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The effective teaching of science requires a minimum of relatively highly specialized apparatus and materials. Thus three questions must be considered:

1. What *type* of equipment should be issued?
2. *How much* of each item should be available?
3. What is the *minimum quota* of apparatus and materials necessary for efficient teaching at the various levels?

These questions are significant from the point of view of the administrator and the organizer responsible for the establishment, administration and maintenance of a school science teaching service. They become even more significant when the country concerned is compelled to import such equipment and materials from several thousand miles away. A casual approach will entail expense, inconvenience and inefficiency. When the teaching of science was limited to a few selected schools the problem was not particularly acute, but with the rapid extension of science teaching as a core subject these questions become of critical importance.

When the number of laboratories concerned is small, efficiency may be assured by providing something more than the minimum equipment; but when the number is large this practice is extravagant and therefore not permissible. For example, if only two schools are involved and each requires one simple microscope, the provision to two to each school, whether deliberate or through an error of judgement, involves an excess expenditure of only about Rs 500. But if 400 schools are concerned a similar error will mean an excess expenditure of about Rs 40,000. A few such errors can account for a whole year's funds. In the case of less costly items, the number required is usually larger and the corresponding waste may be comparable. In view of this, it is clear that standard lists of apparatus are a necessity, and minimum amounts, consistent with efficiency, must be determined.

Standard Lists of Equipment

Standard lists of equipment for secondary schools are relatively easy to prepare, if highly experienced science teachers are available. Teachers can usually prepare their own lists which are more or less satisfactory; but from the administrator's point of view, such lists have little value. The administrator desires lists which satisfy three criteria:

1. They should give specific guidance on how the recommendations of the standard lists may be modified when there are variations in the number of laboratories, in the capacity of the laboratories and in the number of pupils.

2. They should give a detailed explanation of requirements so that changes may be made when necessary.

3. They should be capable of efficient execution by an average worker with a reasonable knowledge of the subject.

When lists are prepared subjectively without an explicit analysis of the problem they do not meet these requirements.

Many lists have been prepared and released for general use by various organizations. The UNESCO series of *Inventories of Apparatus and Materials for Teaching Science* is one of the most ambitious of such attempts. The All India Council for Secondary Education has published lists for higher secondary schools in India. The Science Masters' Association of Great Britain and teachers' organizations in America and elsewhere have released similar lists from time to time. They provide valuable guidance, in general, about the type of equipment which is desired in teaching laboratories. But even when this requirement is adequately met, the answer to the question, 'How much of each item?' is not always given in a useful way. When numbers are given, the basis of deduction is not sufficiently clear to allow systematic variation to suit changing conditions from one location to another. Further, when minor variations in laboratory teaching practice are adopted the effects of such decisions on the equipment and materials is not always evident, and no direct guidance is given on the extent of reserve stocks to be held in a central store.

When the Department of Education in Ceylon decided to extend science teaching, all these problems arose and no satisfactory solutions were to be found in the lists available. The limited number of trained personnel and shortage of funds demanded a careful, rigorous analysis of the problem. The approach outlined in this article is the outcome of an attempt to solve the problem. A few examples will be given to illustrate the ideas presented.

Selection of Equipment

The selection of apparatus and materials is governed by the following principal factors:

1. The subject or subjects taught in the laboratory.
2. The level at which they are taught.
3. The manner in which they are taught. This will involve: (i) the purpose for which general science is taught; (ii) the interpretation of the syllabus; (iii) the relative emphasis placed on demonstration work, group work, and individual work.
4. The environment in which the subject is taught. (This will involve considerations such as: rural or urban surroundings;

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availability of sources of supply; facilities for teachers to mend and repair equipment; the extent of assistance available.)

5. The capacity of the laboratory.
6. The total number of pupils.
7. The total number of hours allotted to the subject.
8. The teacher, his background and training.
9. The pupil, his background and training.

Some factors which are implicit in others are referred to separately because of their importance.

In the analysis, each subject and each level of work will require a particular approach, but the general consideration will remain essentially the same.

To facilitate work, we should recognize two or more distinct levels of work in the school.¹

We should consider the main subjects separately and provide lists for each. For secondary school work the most important subjects are general science, physics, chemistry and biology.

Emphasis should be laid on demonstration work by the teacher and on individual work by the pupils. In general it will be accepted that in the 11 to 14 age-group the work will be mainly *pupil-aided demonstration by the teacher*. Individual work will be done by the pupils in simple situations, but not where special equipment is involved. In the 16+ age-group individual or group work by pupils is required. In the G.C.E. Ordinary Level i.e. 14 to 16, an intermediate situation will be generally accepted.

In underdeveloped countries where education in science is only beginning on a large scale, we must take into account the distance from sources of supply and the unavailability of equipment repair units. Further, the teacher's competence in repairing such equipment, and in certain techniques such as glass-blowing, will also have a bearing on the quantity of equipment issued and that held in reserve in a central store.

It is difficult to define science, but one workable definition is, 'Experimental science is an accumulative, progressive and systematized body of knowledge arrived at by observation and experiment—experiment being observations of phenomena under controlled conditions.'

In the final analysis, a science teaching unit will contain items of equipment and materials capable of being broadly classified into six large groups.

¹ For Ceylon schools, the following sub-division is recommended: 6th, 7th and 8th standard level (11 to 14 years). G.C.E. Ordinary level (14 to 16 years). H.S.C. level (16+).

Group I—Observational Aids

This will include instruments and other apparatus designed for qualitative or quantitative observations relating to mass, length and time, or simple functions of these and the electrical units. If desired this group may be further subdivided on the basis of dimensions of mass, length and time. In the selection of equipment in this group, the degree of precision appropriate to each level can be governed by the simple rule that in each level the student should be acquainted with a limit of precision, which may be approximately one order of magnitude removed from that which is familiar to the average student.

Group II—Control Aids

This group will contain all items of equipment necessary for controlling conditions associated with phenomena. Some of them will relate to temperature, pressure, and volume, and if necessary they may be subdivided on the basis of these fundamental conditions.

Group III—Materials

This will include all chemicals, reagents, specimens, and other consumable materials essential in a laboratory.

Group IV—Auxiliary Aids

This group will include all items essential for supporting and containing, for example, stands, clamps, bottles, jars, beakers and slides. They may be further subdivided according to their functional characteristics.

Group V—Teaching Aids

Charts, models, prepared slides, museum specimens, and other such aids to teaching are required here.

Group VI—Tools

The scheme is comprehensive but it is not unambiguous. A critical examination will show that some items of equipment are not easily assigned to a particular group. A bell-jar, for instance, may be viewed as a device for controlling volume or for containing a gas. In respect of a number of other familiar items similar situations will arise, but this is not a serious weakness and, in fact, is not a new problem. It is a situation with which one is usually confronted when refined classification is attempted. It stems from the fact that things around us are often multi-functional and cannot be easily pigeon-holed. This approach provides a satisfactory analytical framework for answering the question, 'What type of equipment should be issued?'

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The question, 'How much of each item should be issued?' is less easy to resolve, but it is possible to make an analysis which is reasonably satisfactory from a practical point of view.

The Quantity of Equipment

The number, or quantity, of an item is dependent on many factors, and for the purpose of this analysis the Laboratory Capacity (C) and the Pupils' Stream Strength (S) are used preferentially as the basis of the treatment.

The quantity of any particular item may be considered as the *sum* of the allowances provided under each of the following four sections:

Section A. An allowance which is independent of C and S. This will be a quota which is primarily for use by the teacher only, or for demonstration work only, or for common use by all.

Section B. An allowance which is dependent on C but not a simple function of it. This will be a quota provided to cover group work, the number in the group being flexible.

Section C. An allowance which is a simple function of C. This will be a quota provided for individual work or group work of a more rigid type.

Section D. An allowance which is dependent on S and a simple function of it. This will be a quota provided against damage and for amounts consumed by students in one year.

The above analysis is best illustrated by examples. A few are given below:

Example 1. Thermometer 10 to 100°C. (for the general science age-group 11 to 14). This will be an observational aid and the quantity can be deduced as follows:

Allowance under Section A=1 (for use by the teacher and in demonstration work).

Allowance under Section B=3 (for use by groups of students. It is assumed that if the number in the class increases then the number of students in a group will increase, probably from two to three. And it is also assumed that several different experiments, normally not exceeding four, are simultaneously arranged in the laboratory for students).

Allowance under Section C=0.

Allowance under Section D=0 or 1. It is assumed that in the age-group 11 to 14 the breakage in an item such as this is negligible. It should be noted that the chances of breakage are a function of S as thermometers are liable to be damaged every time they are used.

Example 2. Pressure Stove (for general science in the age-group 11 to 14).

This will be a control aid and the number may be as follows:

Allowance under Section A = 1 (for use in demonstration work only).

Allowance under Section B = 0.

Allowance under Section C = 0.

Allowance under Section D = 0.

*Example 3. Beakers.*¹ Borosilicate glass—400 ml.—with spout—short-form (16+ age-group; C = 18 and S = 30 to 40). This will be an auxiliary aid. The amount will probably be made up as follows:

Allowance under Section A = 2 (for demonstration work and for use by the teacher).

Allowance under Section B = 0.

Allowance under Section C = 18 (this will be an allowance for individual or group work).

Allowance under Section D = 4. (This is an estimate of the likely damage in one year by 30 or 40 students. In the present context the estimate is only approximate.)

It will be clear that a school with a chemistry laboratory for High School Certificate work, with C = 18 and S = 30 to 40, will get an initial issue of 24 beakers. A centralized store will keep a sufficient quantity in stock to issue approximately four beakers for each teaching unit against damage.

On the other hand a chemistry laboratory for High School Certificate work, with C = 36 and S = 30 to 40, i.e. a laboratory which is larger but where the Stream Strength in the school remains the same, will have received 42 beakers made up as follows: A = 2, B = 0, C = 36, D = 4.

Further, a High School Certificate chemistry laboratory, with C = 18 and S = 120 to 160, will have received 36 beakers, the number being made up as follows: A = 2, B = 0, C = 18, D = 16.

Example 4. Glass tubing. Soda glass—4 to 6 mm—medium wall (for the age-group 14 to 16+ : C = 18 and S = 30 to 40).

Allowance under Section A = 200 gm.

Allowance under Section B = 200 gm.

Allowance under Section C = 300 gm. (for individual work).

Allowance under Section D = 200 gm. (This will be a quota provided for waste and damage in one year.)

¹ Many items in a biology laboratory, e.g. Petri dishes, etc., will be analogously treated.

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It will be seen that this analysis permits the calculation of the amounts to be issued to various locations on a rational basis. It is *not* suggested that mathematical precision is possible in this type of work, or even that it is desirable. What is proposed is that a reasonable technique for estimating should be available, one that does not always demand the attention of a highly experienced specialist. Guess-work is minimized, and even when used is recognized as such and not mistaken for careful estimation.

The above reasoning gives preliminary lists from which minimum standards consistent with workability and efficiency may be deduced.

An analysis such as the one suggested indicates to what extent the amounts are liable to error because of subjective judgement. Further, in the case of a large organization with a network of laboratories, it gives specific guidance on the relative amounts of stores that should be maintained as replacements. It also provides a definite indication of how statistics should be maintained in a centralized store. In theory, and in practice, it should be possible over a period of five to ten years to eliminate the subjective element to a very large extent.

In the analysis it has been assumed that each subject has a laboratory to itself. But the system also enables one to compound lists for two subjects which are taught in the same laboratory.

The Attitude of the Science Teacher

In addition to administrative needs, I think the system serves a distinct and vital educational need as well. The teaching of general science will be a real success only if the teacher willingly and actively exploits the environment to meet the needs of the classroom. In countries with limited financial resources, an extension of general science teaching is possible only if the teacher is prepared to undertake this. He should do so not only in respect of materials but also of equipment. With a view to meeting this need many authors have suggested various improvised items of equipment. A very significant contribution to this field is the UNESCO *Source Book of Science Teaching*. But it is important that the substitution of the component not readily available near by should be carried out with an appreciation of its functional adequacy. It should not be done with a feeling of dissatisfaction because the apparatus is unavailable. If the substitution is functionally adequate no apology is needed and none should be offered for using it. It is important that the teacher and pupils should look upon equipment and materials not in isolation or as connected with specific experiments, but in a more integrated way as generalized apparatus with specific functional characteristics.

The teacher should not use a tin with a sense of dissatisfaction, feeling all the while that the thing to have is a beaker. If what he wants is a wide-mouthed container, not necessarily transparent, resistant to sudden changes of temperature but not acid resistant, then he should accept the tin with satisfaction because it is functionally adequate.

If he wants a transparent container which is not rapidly affected by acid and alkali, but is not necessarily resistant to thermal shocks, then any wide-mouthed bottle should be accepted and used. On the other hand, if he wants a vessel which is not affected by acid and alkali and is resistant to thermal shocks, but not necessarily transparent, then a porcelain cup will do. However if he really wants for his purpose a wide-mouthed vessel which is acid-alkali resistant, optically clear, and resistant to thermal shocks, he is entitled to complain if a borosilicate glass or similar beaker is not available. And, if in addition to the foregoing, he requires a vessel with a high transparency to infra-red and ultra-violet, then he should demand a high-quality clear quartz beaker, as no other will be functionally adequate.

Similarly, Petri dishes and culture flasks of various types have well-defined functional characteristics.

It may fairly be said that no teacher should present an experiment to a class without appreciating the functional characteristics of every component. Apart from this, the worker should see possible improvements to equipment when he views them from a functional angle.

This aspect of the study of equipment is valuable to all science workers. It should form an essential component in a science teacher's training programme, for one who lacks such understanding is deprived of a great asset. In the author's opinion this mental skill is at least as important to the science teacher as manipulative skills such as woodwork or glass-blowing.

How much useful equipment is available depends more on the teacher's attitude towards equipment and on his own resources than on local conditions. The teacher who cultivates the right attitude to improvisation will soon begin to believe that 'the whole world is a laboratory and everything in it is equipment and material for teaching science'.

'Everywhere there is an increasing awareness that it is important to provide greater facilities for teaching science and technology. This is because science and technology have produced immense changes in man's ability to understand nature's mysteries and to control and utilize its forces for his purposes. Wherever peoples are confronted with low standards of life and are trying to improve

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them they turn to science and technology. To implement the plans that have been prepared for the adequate teaching of science in schools and colleges is admittedly a long-range enterprise. Any guidance towards improved techniques in this field of education would surely be of great help.'

The above words are from the preface to the UNESCO series, *Inventories of Apparatus and Materials for Teaching Science*. The present analysis is an attempt to provide a fundamental, rational basis for the construction of such lists—a framework of thinking based on the nature of science itself.

JINAPALA ALLES

This article is supplied by the Education Clearing House, UNESCO, a part of its programme of diffusion of technical information on education.

The Structural Approach to the Teaching of English

EARLY IN THE TWENTIETH CENTURY the study of languages began to be looked upon as a science, and linguists made scientific investigations into the origins and history of languages. After years of research they came to very helpful conclusions which have a direct bearing on the learning of a language. What Palmer had said earlier, that language learning was a process of habit formation, the linguists proved scientifically. They discovered that language learning was the acquiring of a new skill.

Secondly they found that language is not a haphazard collection of words, and that a word is not merely a collection of sounds. Hence they analysed words, phrases and sentences, and discovered that language is a system—'a system of systems'. To quote Bloomfield: 'Language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols by means of which a social group co-operates.'

Philologists also noticed that different languages have different systems and sometimes there is little or no connexion between one system and another. Every language has its own sound system. The 'th' sound in English, for instance, is different from the Hindi त्. Hence in order to learn two or three languages, one must learn them separately.

Because language is constantly developing, one can never learn the whole system.

These revelations and the experimental investigations carried out by the British Council and the University of London, Institute of Education, have made us realize that in teaching English as a foreign language we should concentrate on what is known as 'essential English'.

The ingredients of 'essential English' are the sounds, words, sentences and phrases that provide a linked system. Alan Gardiner says in his book, *The Theory of Speech and Language*: 'All schools of grammarians are now agreed that the unit of speech is not the word but the sentence.' Palmer also states that stress should be laid on the sentence, because the sentence is a unit of thought. It contains lexical as well as grammatical material.

Language Patterns

After considerable study and experimental work, it has been found that there are 275 language patterns which constitute the core of 'essential English'. These basic patterns are called structures. As we know, language uses contain sounds which are primary symbols. Combinations of sounds are called 'forms'. These forms combine to form structures. Thus a phrase is a structure and so is a sentence. The forms do not combine haphazardly. For example, the forms 'horse', 'girl', 'boy', 'in', 'table', 'an', 'fan', do not combine to make a structure. So words are not all-important in a language. Words, such as prepositions, which do not mean anything by themselves are called structural words. In most sentences there is at least one structural word. The structures are carefully graded, so that a cumulative approach to them should give the pupil a working command of the four basic language skills at the end of the course, namely, understanding, speech, reading, and writing.

In grading the structures, attention is paid to both meaning and form. They are selected on the basis of (i) productivity, (ii) usefulness, (iii) simplicity, and (iv) teachability. A fundamental point in this approach is that only one teaching item is dealt with at a time, and in such a way that each depends on all that has gone before and prepares the way for what is to come. So only one meaning of a word is taught at a time and is established by practice before another meaning is introduced. Each meaning is taught as a fresh item. Generally the meaning that can be taught by visual demonstration should be taught first. For example, 'to' as a directive should be taught before 'to' as a part of an infinitive, and 'have' as a verb should be taught before the auxiliary. Each new meaning

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taught is a semantic extension of a particular word. The number of words which should form part of the active vocabulary of the pupil is also fixed, and at the end of the course he is expected to know 4000 root words excluding derivatives and collocations. The vocabulary includes only the commonest and most essential words, those which are absolutely necessary for a working knowledge of English.

Oral work is the cornerstone of the structural approach. Through speech the pupil learns to make direct connexion between the word and the object, action or idea to which it refers. Thus he acquires the habit of using correct sentence patterns. Speaking and listening precede reading. In speech the pupil imitates the words and sentence patterns of the teacher and progresses quickly. This has a valuable psychological effect, for it is rightly held that to be able to speak a language makes the language more living and real than to be able to read or write it. The aural-oral approach is more effective than the visual.

An Experiment

In view of the present deterioration in the standard of English, and in my enthusiasm to reinstate English to its former status as a medium of instruction, I undertook the task of teaching two groups of students which were equally matched in intelligence. On one group I used the traditional method of teaching English—a combination of the direct and the translation methods, and on the other I tried the structural approach. Thus I sought to make a comparative evaluation of the two techniques of teaching English to beginners, and I found the structural approach more effective.

Suggestions

1. Today, when the standard of achievement in English has deteriorated at all levels, any attempt to improve it calls for the structural approach as a technique for teaching not only beginners but even secondary school pupils. It is only to this new approach that one can look for getting over the defects of a limited vocabulary, wrong use of inflexions, structural words and language patterns.
2. Since the most fundamental aspect of a language is its structure, our first endeavour should be to acquaint the pupils with the most productive structures. To gain this objective we must replace present-day textbooks with new ones in which the basic structures are arranged progressively.
3. We must choose words and patterns which will awaken and hold the interest of the child at an early stage of mental develop-

ment. Therefore the age, environment and linguistic background of a pupil must be kept in mind.

4. The best way to establish the selected words and patterns is thorough intensive practice and drilling.

5. Since oral work is all important and the child learns by imitation, the teacher's speech habits and pronunciation should be sound. He should be well trained in both the rhythm and the meaning of the language. For this reason it is suggested that schools should be provided with linguaphone records of English speech and poetry.

6. The teacher's attitude towards the pupils should be sympathetic. He must exercise great patience and be able to keep all the students engaged.

7. The use of pictures has proved very effective in the structural approach. The teacher should make use of pictures which will teach more than one structure. They should be used particularly for introducing items for which verbal situations cannot be provided in the classroom.

8. In order that speech ability should not develop at the cost of reading and writing skills, practice in the latter should begin early, say after ten structures have been established. Practice in writing should be given in the form of transcription and prepared dictation.

9. Reading material and exercises in oral composition should be prepared with the help of the structures already taught and no new material should be prescribed for practice in reading and speech. This should help in revising vocabulary and structures.

10. While giving practice in reading teachers should see that, as in speech, rhythm is maintained.

11. To develop neat handwriting and make spelling easier, children should be taught to print when they are beginning to write.

12. The class can progress quite fast by the use of the structural method. If there are slow pupils who fail to keep up with the rest of the class, the teacher should pay special attention to them.

13. Above-average pupils may adversely affect the tone of the class, and since the attainment of the class should be uniform, those who have facilities for learning English at home should not be allowed to show off in class.

14. Certain structural items such as 'a', 'an', 'it', 'getting', 'taking', are established only with great difficulty. The learning graph at these points becomes more or less a straight line. There is a 'plateau' in learning when the class fails to register any progress. At these times more practice is the only remedy. The teacher who employs the structural method must be prepared for this and must not be discouraged.

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15. Supplementary reading material, prepared with the help of vocabulary and structural items taught in the first year, should be prescribed in the second year. This procedure should be followed till the end of the secondary school course, and supplementary reading should be in the form of stories in continuous structures.

16. When employing the structural approach, the number of students in a class should not exceed thirty. Large classes create difficulties and hamper progress.

17. The teacher should aim to teach at the rate of 400 content words a year, besides the structural items.

18. The greatest drawback to the structural approach is that it is very difficult to bring habitual absentees into line with the class.

19. Also, teaching becomes difficult if the students have prepared the lesson at home in advance. They should therefore be asked only to revise the structures already taught and not to attempt to learn the next structure before it has been dealt with in class. Parents' co-operation in this is most essential. They should be aware of the limitations of the structural method.

20. Competent teachers are the most essential requirement. A teacher who is active, intelligent, resourceful, and able to manipulate all situations to the advantage of the class, is bound to improve the tone of the class.

21. It may be felt that this approach lays a great strain on the teacher. But experience points the other way. In the initial stages the teacher must be alert to put the children on the right track in matters of speech and structural patterns. But once he has entered into the spirit of the method and succeeded in communicating with his pupils, the strain is reduced. He need not then do so much active teaching, but he must give frequent examples. With a little planning he can inspire the whole class to productive activity, and he is amply rewarded when pupils spring surprises by building fine, continuous exercises in oral composition.

RAMESH CHANDRA SRIVASTAVA

Some Educational Practices in Iraq

I WAS A TEACHER IN IRAQ FOR ABOUT TWO YEARS, and in this article I shall describe some practices obtaining there in secondary schools. These practices are presented more to stimulate fresh thinking among Indian teachers and educational authorities than on the presumption that they are worthy of adoption here. Perhaps some of them are acceptable with modifications.

Accommodation and the Shift System

Most of the schools in Iraq are owned by the government, and are housed in buildings which provide adequate shelter from the extreme climate. Schools generally work on the shift system with a mid-day break of one and a half or two hours. Classes are held six days in the week with a total of 30 lessons a week for every class, each of 45 minutes' duration. The school is divided into two groups. A group attends the morning session for the first three days, and then the afternoon session for the next three. Teachers are expected to work during both sessions. It may be argued that this is too heavy a burden, but teachers are required to attend only if they have work assigned to them on the time-table.

Also, to ensure an equal distribution of the teaching load, a teacher is required to take a minimum of 24 lessons a week in order to qualify for a salary. This amounts to only four periods, or three hours of teaching, a day. If he is called upon to take more classes, a teacher is given extra remuneration for every additional lesson. This system serves an excellent purpose, for a subsidiary income obviates the need to give private tuition. Any inconvenience caused by the shift system—for teachers must be present even part of the time at both sessions—is relieved by extra payment for extra effort.

School managements, both private and government, are faced with the problem of having to provide adequate accommodation for rapidly growing classes, and this is the main reason for the shift system. There is much criticism against the system, which is looked upon as a necessary evil. But if it is carefully examined in relation to each locality and if the system of providing teaching personnel in Iraq is studied, it may be possible to work out a practicable and effective system of shifts in some areas in India. If it can be successfully worked, the advantage gained in the matter of accommodation will be considerable. Though pupils will lose five periods a week, they will have a whole session, morning or afternoon, every day for self-effort and study. If study at home can be effectively

planned and supervised, it will more than compensate for the loss of a few periods. Pupils in Iraq do a great deal of reading on their own and develop a measure of self-confidence. If there is little self-effort among Indian pupils, one of the reasons is that they spend too much time in overcrowded classrooms.

Examinations and Promotion

When a pupil graduates from a secondary school in Iraq, he has had eleven years schooling—six primary, three intermediate, and two high school years. There is a government examination on a national scale at the end of each of these stages. So a uniform standard of education is secured, and teachers put in their best effort at all times, though this system has the obvious disadvantage of being examination-centred. Monthly tests are held regularly, and there are terminal examinations also. The average class performances together with performances at the terminal examinations determine promotion. It is noteworthy that the pass-mark is 50 per cent. In order to be promoted a pupil must pass not only on the total, but in every subject. However, if he fails in only one or two subjects, he is permitted to reappear for those subjects alone at the beginning of the new academic year.

Second examinations are similarly held after government examinations too, thus avoiding the waste of time and effort resulting from student detention. Teachers and educational authorities in India should consider whether it would not be practicable to conduct such examinations here too.

Other Practices

Work in every subject is inspected by a specialist, and there is also an inspection of administrative work. This ensures better professional guidance for teachers.

Teachers are not provided with tables or chairs in the classrooms. Though they often resent this, and reasonably too—for a table at least is an indispensable item—teachers keep alert and active all the time. There is no provision for casual leave. Leave of absence may be had when necessary with the prior permission of the controlling officer. Teachers are, of course, granted sick leave on production of a medical certificate.

The headmaster and his staff share a commonroom, so that almost everything the headmaster does—investigating misbehaviour, punishing pupils, receiving parents—is done in the presence of some of the teachers. A greater affinity is thus acquired between the headmaster and his staff. In big schools, however, there are additional staffrooms.

It is noteworthy that every school, be it primary or secondary, is connected by telephone with the district educational officer's quarters. This has numerous advantages, and I have often wished that Indian schools could be similarly connected with district educational authorities.

P. R. S. IYER

History Teaching with an Economic Bias

THE MAIN AIM OF THE STUDY OF HISTORY should be to provide the student with a resourceful, logical and critical mind. In the process of such development the student must exercise imagination.

A mind trained through the study of history is able to gather facts more easily. But before we can bring pupils to this advanced level of learning we require a well-planned syllabus and dedicated teachers who are specially trained in the teaching of history.

The construction of a syllabus in Indian history has always presented a problem to educationists. They must repeatedly deliberate over many controversial issues. To draw a comprehensive picture of this complex subject is almost impossible. In view of this the modern tendency is to take a materialistic view and give to the study of history an economic bias.

Such an approach is justified by the positions the United States and Russia hold in international politics today, for it is only through economic progress that a country acquires power. The scientific achievements of these countries are also the result of economic wealth. Many nations in the East are looking to India for guidance and help. We can render help effectively if we set our own house in order and acquire economic stability. This can be done only when the people become fully conscious of what the country expects of them, and surely it is never too early to begin such training both at home and at school. The school in particular can impart such training through the study of history. History must therefore be a compulsory subject.

To teach history effectively we must have a syllabus based on economic growth, and the subject should be studied with reference to India's position at home and abroad, for national history must be linked with world history.

No intelligent pupil can fail to see how India's wealth and culture have attracted adventurers and empire builders through the centuries, till the people, spurred to fight for freedom, acquired independence.

The Syllabus

The secondary school history syllabus may be framed on the following lines:

At the junior stage, that is from eight to eleven years of age, instruction should be in story form. We must begin with the evolution of man and lead by gradual stages to the ancient civilizations. In an account of man's evolution it is very important to include basic archaeological and scientific facts. So the teacher must be well-informed about facts which the textbook does not provide.

Among the ancient civilizations those of Crete and Phoenicia are as important as the Egyptian and Roman, for the Cretans and Phoenicians were the great traders of the Mediterranean and across Asia. To them we are indebted for bringing the people of the world closer together and making possible an exchange of ideas in philosophy, religion, art, and the sciences.

Hero-worship plays a great part at this stage of a child's life, so we may profitably include simple biographies of great men in our syllabus. The lives of Buddha, Asoka, Hannibal, Caesar and Alexander will leave a deep impression on young minds.

Local history should also be taught at the junior stage by linking men and events with festivals, ballads, and local historical monuments.

Both the concentric and the periodic methods should be applied at the middle and senior stages in teaching world history. The Renaissance, the French Revolution, the Industrial Revolution, and the two world wars should be the main topics of our study, for they have affected not only India, but mankind. English history must necessarily play an important part in any study of our own country.

At the senior stage the syllabus should have a social and cultural bias, for progress in these fields is the fruit of economic progress.

DARA R. CONTRACTOR

The Teaching of General Science

IT IS A TRUISM that for the majority of students, the S.S.C. examination is the end of formal education. During their high school career they must be provided with enough scientific knowledge for an intelligent way of life. Hence the study of general science must be liberalized in order to link it with practical living experiences, for if the child is to play a useful part in society he must understand the basic natural and scientific phenomena. Interest in the unknown and ever-fascinating world is indeed the starting point of most scientific experiments and inventions. In the process of learning, curiosity and romance provide the greatest incentive.

Gestalt Psychology and General Science

The Gestalt psychologists have made educators think of the problems of learning in comprehensive units. In general science the student must understand the relationship of correlated matter and be able to organize it into a meaningful whole. According to the Gestalt school of psychology, the inter-relationship of elements and how they form a whole is what gives character to the perceptual field. Thus, learning may depend not on the absolute individual stimulus but on the inter-relation of stimuli. The whole of the situation rather than its separate parts determines the perception of the learner. As H. N. Saunders aptly puts it: 'Science is a unity. We may take biology, and add chemistry, and add physics, and add the rest of the sciences, but the sum of them all does not make up what is implied in the word *science*. Science, the whole of it, is like a symphony. Each musical instrument can play a solo on its own account, but forty solo instruments, when played together, do not necessarily produce a symphony, however well each instrument may be played. So *science* is more than a collection of sciences. The one over-riding and compelling reason for teaching General Science is that a pupil shall be aware of this oneness of all scientific knowledge; or at least that he shall be given an opportunity of realizing it.'¹

So general science seeks to cut across the barriers which divide the basic unity of all scientific knowledge. When faced with a related problem, a man does not think in terms of the different branches of science. To solve it he sets in motion his scientific knowledge as a whole. The topics of general science should be selected from the immediate environment of the child and be treated without taking into consideration the various branches and sub-branches. Take for example the topic of 'Air'. It is associated

¹ H. N. Saunders, *The Teaching of General Science in Tropical Secondary Schools* (O.U.P., 1955), p. 14.

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with many branches of science, physics, chemistry, and hygiene. In general science it should be treated as a general topic, not in isolation. Topics may however be divided into 'problem areas'. Such a treatment adds meaning to the process of teaching, and it cements the process of learning through the child's contact with his physical and natural environment.

Today we talk of general science, social studies, and even general mathematics. We also talk of integrated syllabuses for these subjects. We seek to bring about co-ordination of knowledge in human terms.

Everyday Science for Everybody

However, this should not lead to a treatment of general science as a mixture of unrelated facts taken from all branches of science. It is not even the sum total of the various branches of science. It is a natural correlation of the various branches on the one hand and of life and science on the other. Life in this day of phenomenal advance calls for a basic understanding of scientific progress and its impact on economic and socio-cultural changes. From this point of view scientific study which deals with the problems and activities of everyday life can be of more value than a highly specialized study.

We should not forget that the technique of teaching is of greater value than content, and technique depends upon the objectives before us. Here are some which the study of general science seeks to achieve:

1. An intelligent understanding of one's own environment.
2. The ability to apply scientific principles to common situations.
3. An understanding of the cultural aspects of science.
4. The forming of hygienic habits.
5. The development of laboratory skills for those who wish to specialize later.

When the pupil has developed an understanding of the cultural aspects of science, he should: (i) gather information about the lives, problems and achievements of great scientists; (ii) be able to understand how a scientific invention influences social change; (iii) arrange important scientific inventions in chronological order; (iv) be able to understand the constructive and destructive potentialities of science.

Teaching without such objectives will be of no avail. We may not produce Newtons or Einsteins, for we do not mean to. As the report of the Secondary Education Commission says: 'It is to be noted that the science syllabus in the secondary school is not directed

to the "production of scientists". Its aim is to give basic understanding and appreciation of scientific phenomena—biological and physical—which may prepare the "non-scientist" for a fuller and more complete life.'

The teaching of general science cannot be a dynamic process in the hands of a textbook-minded teacher, for he is incapable of presenting matter in an attractive and simple way. General science cannot be confined to the four walls of a classroom. It has grown out of human needs, so its study must be extended to the world outside. A teacher can profitably exploit local resources in order to give students a first-hand knowledge of things. This requires greater initiative than one generally meets, for the majority of teachers are products of a narrow, specialized training. They are reluctant to teach topics which are unfamiliar to them. This is a dangerous attitude, and general science teachers in particular must re-educate themselves so that the psychological and pedagogical concepts of the subject are not reduced to nonsense.

GUNVANT B. SHAH

Book Reviews

A. ELLIOT-CANNON: *Australia* (Oliver and Boyd, 1962), Crown 8vo, pp. iv + 68, 4s.

This book, one of the best of its kind, should prove of interest to anyone who seeks information about Australia.

Starting with its discovery, the author traces the history of Australia from the aborigines, the early adventurers and the Gold Rush to modern times. Descriptions of places worth seeing, of Australians at work and play, and of some of the important development schemes undertaken, complete this brief but far from sketchy geographical account of the continent.

Written in an easy, flowing style, the narrative is enlivened by the inclusion of letters, quotations, verses and humorous incidents. Actual names of

settlers, adventurers and places are used to give a realistic touch.

Three friends, Molly, Roger and Peter come to settle in Australia. They visit different parts of the country and write informative letters. Peter may have appeared a bore to Molly, 'pumping out his facts and figures', but he certainly does enlighten the reader. Mother's guide-book serves a similar purpose, giving useful information that could not have been directly woven into the narrative.

A highlight of the book is the well-planned 'Do-It-Yourself' section. This is not merely a comprehension test. The pupil's love of adventure is kept in mind, and thought-provoking, practical questions are set so that the pupil is encouraged to seek more information for himself. The suggestions for projects and lectures are worth a trial.

Well-selected illustrations and a good pictorial map add to the merits of this book, which should be on the shelf of every high school library.

* * *

Oxford Illustrated Dictionary (O.U.P., 1962), Medium 8vo, pp. xvi+974, 50s.

The latest addition to the Oxford reference books is a work of imagination and painstaking execution. The *Oxford Illustrated Dictionary* is more than a dictionary with illustrations—it bridges the gap between a dictionary and an encyclopaedia, meeting the most common reference requirements. The 'Dictionary' part is modelled closely on the *Concise Oxford Dictionary*, but obsolete words, derivations and illustrative sentences have been dropped. The illustrations—and this is a special point in their favour—are drawn to communicate information in as much detail as one might expect in a general reference book of this size. The articles touch lightly on historical and technical topics and some of the sketches provide interesting contrasts in time.

The inclusion of proper names, however, is not altogether a happy one—specially where contemporary personalities are concerned. For instance, the inclusion of Jawaharlal Nehru, Tito and Mao Tse-tung, makes the exclusion of Nasser, Nkrumah and the other African leaders invidious. The item on Gandhi—'GANDHI, Mohandas Karamchand. Called "Mahatma" (1869-1948). Hindu nationalist and religious leader, originator of "passive resistance" as a form of political action'—must strike even non-Indians as unsatisfactory and inadequate. Surely Jinnah deserves mention as the creator of Pakistan. If limitations of space are a chief consideration, it would have been wise to omit all proper names. In the English-speaking world one ought not need to consult a dictionary to find out that Mr Kennedy is the President of the U.S.A. and Mr Macmillan Prime Minister of

England. Beyond this the dictionary has little to say about these two men.

On the other hand an anxiety to include too much is evident in the ten appendixes, which cover information about weights and measures as well as tables of the Roman Emperors, the Popes after the seventh century, the Kings and Prime Ministers of England, and the Presidents of the United States. Here the dictionary takes on the appearance of a year book. In a sense, the dictionary is a result of academic adjustment to recent political developments in Britain, particularly on a major issue such as Britain's relationships with Europe and America as compared with her relationship with the Commonwealth nations. The Commonwealth is played down, dismissed in some fifteen lines between the items 'British Columbia' and 'British Council' while several of the appendixes are devoted to Europe and America.

Considering the usual conservatism of Oxford reference books, this work is significant. A curious lapse is the use of the word 'Mohammedan' which, applied to a follower of the Prophet Mohammed, is deeply resented by Muslims. The article on Kashmir manages to compress in four lines a complete muddle: 'Kashmir and Jammu. Himalayan State with chiefly Mohammedan, light-complexioned inhabitants of Aryan stock.' This is such an understatement that it misleads. However, these are defects which can be corrected in later editions. On the whole the *Oxford Illustrated Dictionary* is an excellent reference book.

* * *

Understanding Science (Sampson Low), Royal 4to, pp. 18, weekly 2s., annual £6 10s.

In recent years the teaching of science from the primary to the university stage has assumed great importance. The subject is not only of academic value, but helps us to keep

pace with the progress of man. To merely train scientists and technicians is not enough, for today it is essential that the common man have a general knowledge of science.

This magazine, published weekly, should provide inspiration and assistance to the science teacher in his responsible task.

The editors have planned the articles on the 'O' level syllabus of the G.C.E. The articles progressively explain and illustrate the basic scientific principles with coloured diagrams and pictures. It is the intention of the editors that as wide an audience as possible may select from *Understanding Science* what is most helpful in aiding comprehension.

The magazine is particularly valuable in India where the present science syllabus demands a wide knowledge of the various branches of the subject. The articles are arranged in eight broad groups: general science, famous scientific achievements, chemistry, the biological sciences, the natural sciences, technology, basic and elementary physics, and nuclear and electrical physics. While each article is complete, each group is progressively developed in succeeding issues.

Each article on famous scientific achievements gives a brief biographical account of a scientist and concentrates on giving a clear explanation of his

work. The first few issues have published articles on Lavoisier, Kepler, Pasteur and Dewar. The articles on chemistry are so planned that they present a complete account of elementary chemistry. The biology and physiology articles are complementary and appear in alternate issues. Those on technology generally appear after the basic scientific principles have been covered. The subjects under this group range from simple chemical balance to the complicated cathode-ray oscilloscope. The elementary physics group covers heat, optics, sound, hydrostatics and mechanics. The electrical and nuclear physics group makes effective use of pictures to turn basic principles into interesting information that can be easily understood even by the layman. 'The World as it Was' and 'The Heat Balance of the Atmosphere' are two of the most interesting articles in the natural science group.

The covers are attractive and the vivid text illustrations are accompanied by amusing captions such as 'Loves and Hates of Magnets', 'Atoms in Partnership', 'The Antisocial Elements' and 'The Architecture of Shells'.

The editors have done well by adding a glossary to each group, thus making the magazine a useful reference work.

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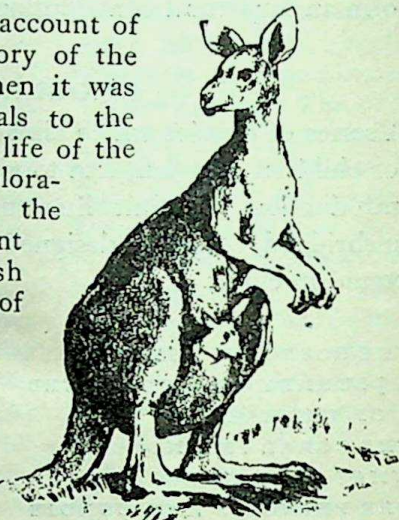
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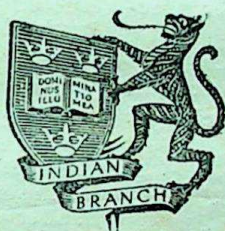
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TEACHING

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FOR TEACHERS



JUNE 1963

VOLUME XXXV

NUMBER 4

PRICE Rs 1.50

The Madras English Language Teaching Campaign

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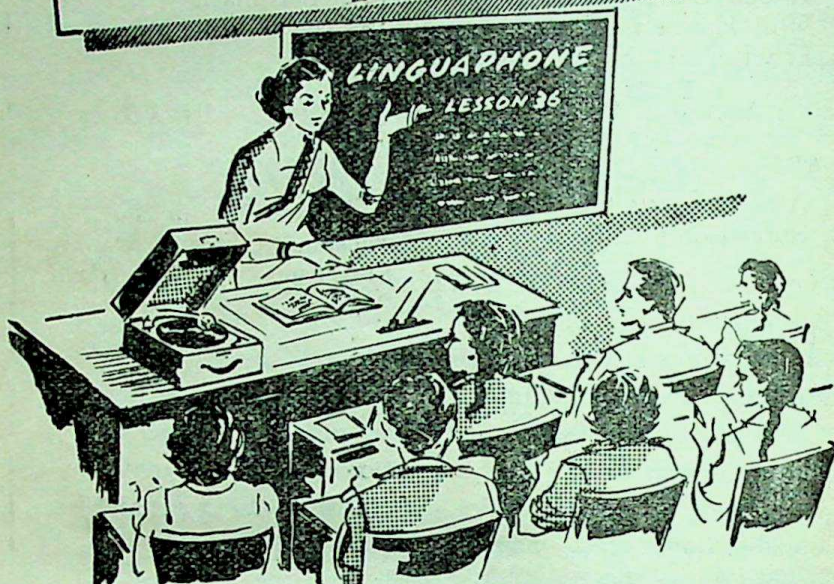
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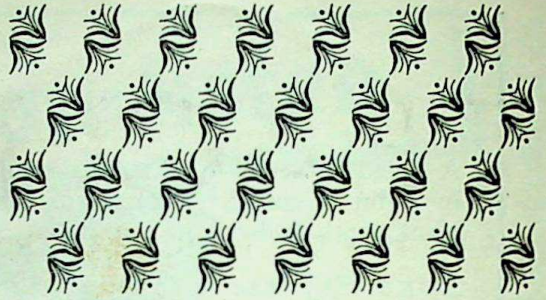
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TEACHING

A QUARTERLY TECHNICAL JOURNAL FOR TEACHERS

Editor: MARGARET BENJAMIN

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No. 4

Editorial

BOTH ENGLAND AND AMERICA have for some years now been experimenting on the linguistic analysis of English. One of the greatest advances in this field is the realization that the linguistic unit is not the isolated word but a number of words arranged in a particular order. Such words are structural words and their arrangement forms what is called a structural pattern.

Vocabulary, though important, is secondary to the structural pattern. In the light of these findings, the conclusion is that patterns and structures are fundamental in language-learning and therefore the approach to English should be through graded structures.

In India, the state of Madras was the first to make use of the results of this research, and as early as 1952 the state prepared a modern structural syllabus at the secondary school level followed by textbooks for the lower classes of the secondary school. In 1957 this scheme was revised by a member of the British Council and by 1959 not only was the modernization of textbooks continued but a 'snowball' scheme, as described in the first article of this issue, was adopted. This revolutionized the teaching of English to Indian students.

This issue contains a series of articles on the Madras English Language Teaching Campaign. The articles give a comprehensive idea of the scheme, and describe in detail how techniques in the teaching of English can be improved in the elementary school when the pupils first begin to learn the language. The articles also deal with methods in group work, which has been recognized by the Madras Campaign as an effective teaching technique in India where large classes are more common than small ones. The teaching of writing, and the aim of developing a good script, is the subject of another article, while 'Some Simple Aids' should be of practical value to those who are interested in working out the scheme.

It is not necessary to reiterate here the controversy about the teaching of English. We have now reached a stage when the pendulum swings between two extremes. On the one hand we have those whose hatred for everything foreign blinds them to all other considerations. On the other there are those who still have nostalgic feelings for the good old days when English was the medium of instruction for six or seven years of a pupil's life at school. It is now an accepted fact that most people want their children to learn to speak, read and write correct English. Whether this is so because English is a requisite for good jobs and a badge of the genteel is hardly important.

There has been a lot of pother about the falling standards of English. The general standard of English in this country has always been low, but is it lower today than it was after Macaulay wrote his famous Minute? Was the average college graduate then able to write better English than the graduate of today? Did he commit the same linguistic errors in his examination papers as are committed now? This would be an interesting matter to investigate.

An important fact which must form the basis of our reforms is that there has been a radical change not only in the methods but in the aims of teaching English. In the past English was the medium of instruction. Today it is to be taught as a second language or, to use a current phrase, an 'associate' language. In the past the translation and formal grammar methods prevailed. Today they have given place to the Direct Method. Methods may vary with individual teachers or even with pupils and classes. The aim today is to enable pupils to read, write, speak and understand the language.

English must be taught in the early stages as a functional language. Its literary aspect can follow later. Unless the approach to the teaching of English is changed, unless large numbers of teachers are trained immediately and made available, there can be no appreciable change in standards.

Much harm has already been done to at least one generation of students by the chauvinistic tendencies of our leaders who have made the language question a political issue. Newspaper propaganda and slogans have not only influenced the young but utterly confused parents. Linked with this is the policy of 'Education for All'. Qualitative consolidation has not kept step with quantitative expansion. This expansionist policy, though good in itself, creates a tremendous and immediate demand for the supply of teachers, as does the rapid awakening of the masses. This is a healthy sign in a new nation, but it has been dangerously exploited. The

demand for teachers has increased, but those who can speak correct English, and have been trained in the new approach, are comparatively few.

The publication of textbooks suited to the new approach is another urgent need. It is true that in the early stages the textbook is not as important as it was in the past. Nevertheless the textbook has its place. Some that have been published in Maharashtra tend to be artificial and stilted, while others tend to produce Indian English rather than English.

We should appreciate the work that has been done by the British Council and others who have initiated and consolidated the new approach. Considerable experimental work has been undertaken in this field and language departments have been opened at Allahabad and Hyderabad in India, and in Lahore in Pakistan. But this is not enough. We need more research. More teachers must be trained on short-term courses to supply the urgent demand. We are at an experimental stage. Before we can evaluate results, there are several problems awaiting investigation.

Other interesting questions arise out of this. How far can the structural approach be utilized in schools where the medium of instruction is English? How far can this approach be used in the teaching of Hindi and with what success?

The articles reproduced in this issue are extracts from material printed for the Madras Campaign, and we are grateful to the Madras Education Department for permission to use them.

The December issue of *TEACHING* will be a special one on school organization and administration. Some suggestions for articles on this topic appeared in the editorial of the March 1963 issue.

The Madras English Language Teaching Campaign

' SINCE THE LATE THIRTIES, when a gradual change-over to Tamil medium in the secondary schools began, there has been a rapid decline in the standards of English in Madras, as elsewhere in India. . . . Boys and girls passing the Secondary School Leaving Certificate Examination at about the age of 15 and entering colleges find their knowledge of English inadequate. They cannot understand lectures delivered in English, which is the medium at most colleges. They cannot express themselves adequately in English. Their weakness in English handicaps them throughout their university courses. They are handicapped in their careers in those posts both inside and outside government service, which require a high standard of English. Grave disquiet is expressed by educationists, political leaders, and educated people generally. Every year there are long waiting lists for admission to the relatively few English-medium schools. . . . '

This, in the words of an article in a recent issue of *English Language Teaching*, published in London, is the situation facing teachers today in a state where the English language is perhaps as widely understood as it is anywhere else in India.

The Madras English Language Teaching Campaign is the attempt which the local government initiated four years ago to arrest this decline. The article speaks of the project as follows.¹

The Problem

There are two principal means of raising standards. One is to tackle the problem at the higher levels: to improve university, college, and training college standards; to allocate resources for research; to rely on higher standards filtering down. This is the long-term approach. The second is to retrain the primary school and secondary school teachers already at work in the classrooms. This might give almost immediate results.

By 1959 something had already been done in Madras. For example, the state had, in 1952, been the first in India to introduce a modern structural syllabus at secondary school level. Modern textbooks for the lower levels of the secondary course appeared shortly afterwards. But most teachers, despite new teachers' guide-books, went on teaching in the traditional manner. They

¹ This article is reprinted, in an abridged form, from *English Language Teaching* (O.U.P.), Vol. XVIII, No. 1, October, 1962, by kind permission of the editors.

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applied grammar-translation methods to the structural syllabus and the new textbooks. The results were inevitably unsatisfactory.

In 1959, the state, while continuing the modernization of its textbooks, took up the second approach by adopting a 'snowball' scheme planned in conjunction with the British Council.

The Plan

Although a good many modifications have been made in the light of two years' experience, the plan as worked out originally by British Council officers and the Madras Government remains basically the same. Senior staff train specially recruited staff tutors, who train graduate tutors, who in turn train the teachers of beginners.

Staff

The directors are the Deputy Director of Public Instruction (Training) for the Madras Government and the British Council's Education Officer for South India. On the next level work five senior specialists (three British and two Indian), four of whom are directors of primary centres situated in widely separated towns and responsible also for secondary courses in the areas served by these centres. The fifth specialist, assisted by two staff tutors, is now in charge of the 'back room', where he is responsible for producing cyclostyled and printed guidance for use by tutors and teachers.

The officers in charge of primary centres each have four staff tutors to assist them; in addition they are allocated staff tutors for secondary courses in the area. Their training lasts for three months and is given by the Council's Education Officer, the Director of the Pallavaram Primary Centre, an Indian specializing in speech and phonetics, and experienced staff tutors.

All the British staff have had previous overseas experience in English language teaching. One of the Indian senior staff has had training in evaluation in the United States. The staff tutors are college lecturers, high school teachers, outstanding secretaries of secondary courses; some have worked outside India. All are, of course, graduates; but they vary considerably in age and background. Enthusiasm and energy, a good command of English, and adaptability are more important than academic qualifications.

Organization of Training

High school teachers, nearly always graduates, selected by the district educational officers, undergo a three-week intensive training at primary centres. The course covers between ninety and a hundred hours.

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On the completion of their training they return to their normal school duties but are called upon in groups of four or five to staff part-time secondary courses. Twice a week over a period of four to five months non-graduate teachers, usually 30 teachers of first-year English and half a dozen of second-year English, report for evening classes, which are taken in local schoolrooms by the graduate teachers trained in primary centres.

The Content of the Training

In their initial three months the staff tutors are given in Madras a course involving the main principles of second-language teaching; elementary phonetics; remedial English, both spoken and written; observation of first-year English classes; demonstration lessons; teaching practice; the learning of 'campaign script' (Italic writing); the singing of 'campaign songs'; the technique of lecturing to people whose English is limited; the making and use of visual aids. They staff model secondary courses and work on these under guidance. They make 'professional kits', largely visual aids for demonstration purposes.

The four primary centres, each admitting about ten intakes a year of between 30 and 50 high school teachers, concentrate on two main tasks: the improvement of these teachers' own English, and professional training. There are daily demonstrations of the teaching of first-year structures and vocabulary, the teaching of first-year reading and writing, and so on. Trainees are divided into groups for practice teaching, children coming from nearby schools. They are given simple lectures on the main principles. They practise oral reading of the first-year reader; they learn nursery rhymes and campaign songs; they make visual aids; they practise blackboard drawing and writing; they discuss matters in groups under staff tutors. As much attention as possible is given to their own spoken English. They see models of the two different types of secondary course meetings, handled by staff tutors.

The secondary course programmes cover some seventy hours of work with much the same sort of content, but simplified and reduced to fundamentals. Demonstration and practice teaching are the most important items in these courses. The teaching of the key structures in the government syllabus is demonstrated and the teaching of every other structure is discussed. Songs, rhymes, visual aids, remedial English and a knowledge of phonetics adequate for trainees to ascertain the pronunciation of words in A. S. Hornby's *An English-Reader's Dictionary* are also included. The programme for each meeting is laid down in detail.

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Both primary and secondary courses concentrate on first-year English—on the first-year syllabus and the first-year English classroom: demonstration, teaching practice, rhymes, songs, visual aids, problems discussed, are nearly all geared to the first-year English course. Periods are short. The bell rings on time for the change of periods. Blackboard summaries are moved forward or children ushered in. Language is simple. With so little time at the staff's disposal the pace, particularly in primary courses, is hot.

Supervision and Management

The highest-level body is the Steering Committee, comprising the Director of Public Instruction or his representative, the Deputy Secretaries for Education and Finance in the Madras Government, and the two Directors. This committee exists primarily to give government sanction to government expenditure on the campaign. It is a most valuable body and essential for a scheme involving the expenditure of a lot of public money.

Both the directors of the campaign tour a good deal, visiting primary and secondary courses as well as first-year English classes being taught by products of secondary courses. They are in constant touch with each other. Their discussions are recorded in discussion notes sent to the five senior members of staff and to the staff tutor in charge of the southernmost area, so that all these know of major decisions and pass them on to staff tutors generally.

The senior staff meet in Madras about four times a year to thrash out policy and sort out difficulties.

A staff conference and refresher course lasting a week is held annually so that staff tutors can keep up to date.

The directors of primary centres visit as many secondary courses as they can. But the main supervision of these is by staff tutors, each of whom visits twelve secondary courses a month, observing the work, participating in it, and holding a meeting with the tutors after his visit to discuss virtues and failings. A set of typed recommendations issues a week later.

The senior member of the secondary course teams is the secretary. Each of the five areas (there is one in the far south without a primary centre) holds two secretaries' conferences during a set of courses—one of two days, one of one—at which model general and tutorial meetings are demonstrated by the primary course director and staff tutors and problems sorted out.

A campaign newsletter is issued to all trained on primary courses whenever the Council's Education Officer finds time to compile it.

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The Madras Government's Contribution

The British Council meets most of the cost of the British specialist staff, as well as providing books and a certain amount of equipment for primary centres. It has also arranged for visits and advice from outside experts such as Mr A. S. Hornby, Dr W. R. Lee, and Mr L. A. Hill. However, by far the greater share of the cost of the campaign is borne by the Madras Government. The sum involved is considerable, including a basic element in the salaries and rents of British teacher-trainers, and covering the rent of primary centre buildings, salaries of full-time staff, travelling expenses (including the initial cost and running expenses of three vehicles), attendance allowances to tutors and trainees, books and equipment, even biscuits to maintain the morale of children attending demonstration and practice-teaching classes.

With over five thousand teachers these days under training at any one time the scheme involves a considerable extra burden for hard-pressed district educational officers and deputy inspectors. Trainees have to be selected, training school English specialists and deputy inspectors released for courses, allowances paid and accounted for, leave granted, and so on.

Progress and Problems

By 31 January 1962, 2,242 tutors had been or were being trained on primary courses and 7,672 teachers had been trained on secondary courses. Another 5,583 were undergoing secondary course training at 164 different centres dotted all over the state. The total number of teachers of first-year English to be trained by the end of the campaign is estimated at 27,000.¹

Inevitably, by the time the children are reached in the ordinary classrooms, the impact of the training at the top is much reduced. There is a limit to the improvement possible in a teacher's English on a course of less than a hundred hours. The weaker secondary courses need more supervision than they get. The campaign cannot remedy shortages of classroom accommodation and equipment. It cannot reduce the size of classes, nor can it improve the home backgrounds of poor children. It is not yet tackling to any major extent the teaching in second-year and later English classes; this is a major task for the future. However, the impact has been considerable.

The Minister of Education and Finance has backed the campaign from the start. There has been much public interest, especially in the rural areas, and almost no public criticism. All visitors seem

¹ By 28 February 1963, 3,247 tutors had been trained on primary courses and 20,431 teachers on secondary courses. At this date 6,428 teachers were undergoing secondary course training at 201 centres.

to have been impressed with the pace and efficiency of the primary courses. Staff and trainee morale has throughout been high. There has been a major change in the attitude of trainees towards their pupils and in their approach to teaching. The use of the mother-tongue in the English class has been abandoned in thousands of classrooms. For the first time in nearly three decades children in the primary schools are speaking English in the classroom as well as reading and writing it. The old alphabetic method of teaching reading is being replaced by a combination of Look and Say and Sentence Method supplemented by phonics.

Teachers are gaining confidence in the new methods. They create and seize on situations on which to base their lessons; they try to provide activity in their classrooms, though congestion often makes this difficult; they show pictures and use visual aids. And the children respond accordingly.

The reader is no longer the beginning and end of the English course: children are learning, not merely the reader, but English.

The campaign has aroused such interest in India that the introduction by certain other states of mass retraining schemes on the Madras model, but modified in the light of Madras experience, is almost certain. Kerala has already started a pilot campaign of its own. Inquiries have come from outside as well as inside India. For Asian countries faced with vast numbers of teachers needing training or retraining the advantages of the 'snowball' approach are obvious.

The Approach

The Structure in Language Teaching

The Grammar-Translation method of teaching foreign languages has been replaced fairly generally in most countries. This treats the new language as a dead language, worries little about the spoken form and deals mainly with the alphabet, with spelling and with written work. It assumes that translation is the main way of learning vocabulary, that learning to use words in sentences can be done through learning rules of grammar, and that languages are fixed and have only one correct form. But methods that may be satisfactory for teaching dead languages are not satisfactory for living languages. English is a living language. A reading knowledge of English is not enough.

The method used generally these days is often called the Direct Method. Several decades ago it was realized that it was important to concentrate in the first four or five years on the most common words in English. 'Vocabulary selection' resulted. It came to be realized too that the *spoken form of English* was as important as the written form, and in the early stages of learning more important. In dealing with spoken language it was realized that the science of *phonetics* could be of great value. The vital place of vocabulary selection, oral work, and a knowledge of phonetics is now recognized almost everywhere.

Of recent years the advance has been in the adoption of the Structural Approach. Words are not used singly but in combination—in 'structures'. It is no use knowing the meanings of thousands of individual words: we must be able to use them in sentences, and sentences are based on structures. About three hundred very important structures have been identified. Modern English courses for learners whose mother-tongue is not English attempt to arrange these in a suitable order and to teach them one at a time, the new work following logically upon the old. This is called structural grading. The Madras syllabus is based on 'graded structures' and spreads the teaching of the individual structures over a period of five years.

There is no one order of structures accepted everywhere as the best. Experts differ about such points as at what stage questions should be introduced, what tense should be taught first, what second, and so on. Much depends on such factors as the mother-tongue of the learners and whether they are children or adults. However, just as the situational approach to English teaching commits us to teach through speech, so it commits us to teach through structures. For one thing structure depends on *situation*. A certain situation involves certain structures. For example, think of a young child taking hold of a very sharp knife, and starting to cut at a table or chair; his mother immediately says, 'Don't!' or 'Don't do that!'—the situation has involved the negative command structure. If we want to teach certain structures in the classroom we have to create appropriate situations in the classroom. We cannot rely on single words, because they rarely make a complete structure and are often inadequate for a situation, e.g., if a teacher puts a clock on the table and says to the pupils 'Time?', this is hardly satisfactory; unless he is content with 'baby talk' he will use the complete structure 'What is the time?'

Translation is a hindrance and not a help to oral English because it involves a delay while the learner translates the vernacular into English instead of having the English come straight to him from the

object or action. Grammar, which has a place later in the course if treated functionally, is of little or no value in Standard V. (And at the higher stages many pupils taught by the Grammar-Translation method will know a lot of grammar and very little English.) Whether or not a structure is difficult depends on the situation in connexion with which it is taught. We may have confidence in the structure-grading of the syllabus, because it has been the experience of practising teachers that normal classroom situations favour this order of introducing structures. The ordinary teacher will be wise to follow it, creating real classroom situations which will make the teaching of structures easy. There will be times, however, when a situation actually occurs in a classroom which an experienced teacher will want to use to teach a certain structure even if this involves teaching it earlier than the syllabus suggests. He should not hesitate to do this.

It must be clear that structure grading does not cancel out word grading; we must be careful to control our use of vocabulary along with our use of structures. Such words as are difficult to children are not usually difficult because of their length or sound, but because:

(i) they are *uncommon* words. To teach a word not often used is, in the early stages, a waste of time, as the pupil will almost certainly forget it before it is used again.

(ii) they are *structural* words, e.g., 'who', 'near', 'when', 'is'. The most important words for the learner are the *structural* words—conjunctions, prepositions, auxiliary verbs, pronouns—and they are in general short. It is relatively easy to teach *content* words—nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs.

In teaching structures, teachers should remember that there are four stages in the student's learning of them:

1. The child *hears* the new speech unit from the teacher. (But if it were not repeated the structure would disappear completely from his mind.)

2. The child *recognizes* a speech unit which he has heard before. It is no longer a series of meaningless sounds: the child hears it, recognizes it and perhaps understands it. For instance, very early in the Standard V course the teacher may say to the child, 'Show me your pen.' The child may not be able to reproduce this, but he may obey it by holding up his pen. In other words, he recognizes the sounds and understands their meaning without necessarily understanding the individual words. (This is what we call 'passive knowledge'.)

3. The child is able to *imitate* the sounds, again perhaps without analysing individual words.

4. The child from memory is able to *reproduce* the speech unit in an appropriate situation. (This is what we call 'active knowledge'.)

When planning the introduction of structures, certain important points must be remembered:

1. We must make the pupils thoroughly familiar with the structures given, in three forms—spoken, printed, and written. It is not sufficient, therefore, to delay teaching the last structure in the syllabus until the last week of the year. The emphasis in Standard V is on oral work. The oral introduction of the new structure should take place well before—in the early stages several weeks before—the pupil is introduced to it in written form. This allows plenty of time for it to become familiar to the child by means of practice—revision involving the use of the new structure in new situations or in different contexts. Then when he finds it in his reading he is thoroughly familiar with it. His own written work involving it comes after he has met it in his reading.

2. It is not sufficient to say that, because we have taught a structure, the children have learnt it. We cannot consider any structure as taught until the pupil can use it naturally and without hesitation, and can apply it to a new but similar situation.

3. On the other hand, too slow a treatment of a structure will lead to boredom and frustration on the part of brighter pupils. This can be met by: (i) adopting group work, so allowing better pupils to go ahead, and (ii) using a variety of vocabulary. It is good, for instance, to cease being dependent on such objects as books, pencils and pens as soon as possible. One can do this by bringing to the class objects already familiar to the boys from home or bazaar.

4. It is essential that we ourselves should be thoroughly acquainted with the structures to be taught and recognize which structures each text is illustrating. This means we must study the syllabus.

The Situation in Language Teaching

The 'situation' is very important in the Direct Method. If we can observe the common, everyday actions of a pupil in class, and provide him clearly and persistently with the correct language which describes or accompanies those actions, we shall be helping him to an intelligent use of the language (and incidentally, we shall be consciously teaching him English in the same way as he unconsciously learnt his mother-tongue).

It is not easy to teach situationally. On the one hand, there is a temptation to take hold of every small situation, and allow ourselves to forget the particular language pattern which we started out to

teach. On the other hand, there is the danger of ignoring situations which, were they used, would help the pupils considerably. So, for instance, there is a time to ignore the boy who comes late, and a time to use him as a visual aid: the first is when the attention of the class is already fully caught in trying to understand another aspect of the language; the second is when the boy's lateness is an ideal opportunity to illustrate a word or structure. So we must not think that every happening in class, every action of the pupil, is suitable for language teaching, and that we can confidently begin the lesson and allow it to continue as the situation leads, piling structure upon structure, and giving pupils whatever language is called for by each situation. That is why the situational approach, as it is called, must be closely linked with the structural approach, which demands the introduction of words and structures only according to careful grading in order of difficulty.

What is true, however, is that almost every common structure in the language can be first illustrated and taught with reference to a classroom situation, carefully chosen or prepared. The teacher who teaches situationally will be sure to look out for or create that situation, and introduce his language pattern with reference to it. In fact, the idea of beginning in the classroom seems to be more than just a technique and becomes a law. Thus we teach the present continuous tense by means of such sentences as, 'I am writing on the blackboard', and 'I am drawing a picture'.

The process of moving out from the classroom situation to include all situations can be compared to four circles, each bigger than the other, all having the same centre. We need to move out, of course, for although the classroom can serve us in introducing language patterns, it cannot provide us with all the circumstances in which they are used, or with all the vocabulary which the pupils normally need. The four circles are as follows:

1. What the child can see, hear and touch directly. In practice, this means what the child can see, hear and touch in the classroom and through the classroom window, e.g., such people and things as *boy, girl, teacher, desk, window* and such actions as *walking, writing, singing, bringing*.
2. What the pupil knows from his own experience: his daily life, family circle, etc. Note, however, that he has to call such things to mind with a slight effort, because they are not immediately within reach; e.g., such people and things as *mother, father, house, food, roof, tree, post office*, and such actions as *cooking, sleeping, washing, dressing*.
3. What the pupil has not yet experienced but can call to mind through his imagination, helped by pictures, maps, dramatization,

charts, plants and other aids, e.g., *mountain, India, sea, apple*, and such actions as *flying in an aeroplane*.

4. What is brought into the pupil's mind through the spoken, written or printed word alone, which includes such ideas as those expressed in *hate, humble, hope, probable, quite, sorry*.

As an example of these four circles, let us suppose that we have to teach the sentence 'The train is going through the tunnel'. The action of 'going through' can be adequately illustrated in the first circle, as boys or things can be made to go through doorways, windows, easels, etc. (and not without humour). For many children, trains will be in their second circle, familiar to them but not visible at the moment. Fewer children, however, will have experience of tunnels. In this case, the third circle must be used, and the word explained with reference to models or pictures. The whole can then be illustrated by action within the class, so that when the pupil meets the sentence in the fourth circle, in books or newspapers, he can readily understand it.

Two other points can be added concerning the situational approach:

1. Although the classroom situation is natural to the child at the moment, it will not always be so. We must therefore seek to provide him with language which he will use in after-school days. For instance, normal classroom behaviour does not encourage him to ask many questions, but only to answer them, whereas he will later have need of both skills equally. We must see that he has opportunity of practising both. This leads on to the second point.

2. The teacher must create a situation when a suitable situation does not already exist. For example, a boy does not normally sit under a desk; but when trying to illustrate the use of the word 'under', it may prove useful to have him do so. A teacher does not normally run or hop or jump in the classroom but in teaching the present continuous tense he probably will do so. Whilst we should aim at giving the pupil words to actions which go on normally, there are many times when we have to create actions to illustrate words which normal situations demand.

Such an approach to teaching depends to a great extent, and in the beginning entirely, on speech. Action and language can only be joined if we teach orally; otherwise the action would be over before language could be added. The young child's mother-tongue is learnt entirely through speech; and when he learns to write it, he is only setting down patterns which are already familiar to him by being used endlessly in spoken form. Even when we can read and write, by far the greatest part of our use of language is the spoken part; and of this conversation is the most common. Even if it is

argued that Indian children of the future will need to write and read English rather than speak it, they are more likely to do this well if they are familiar with the language in its most common form. Experience in many countries supports the belief that a command of the spoken word is the best beginning to understanding the language in all its forms, and for all its purposes.

The Teaching of Reading and Writing

When learning English the pupil must first be able to understand the English words spoken, then speak them himself. The teacher will, at the beginning, spend his time almost entirely on oral work. He will try to give as many of his pupils as possible the taste of early success in handling the new language. When he feels that most of his class can use the early structures with understanding he can then go on to make the pupils familiar with the written form of those structures.

Speaking, reading and writing should as a general rule be introduced in that order. However, many would claim that writing may follow reading more quickly than reading follows speaking, because the pupils by then should be more at home in the language.

By writing we mean the ability to write words and (more important) sentences which the pupil can already say and read intelligently. Yet there is no reason why the class should not be given some form of paper work from the very beginning. This can take the form of practising writing patterns. (See *Beacon Writing*—published by Ginn—Book I, and Book I of *Italic Writing* by D. Horsburgh, published by O.U.P., copies of which are made available to each Secondary Course.) Pupils, by working through these patterns, will write the letters of the alphabet. The shapes of the letters are the important thing and not their names and positions. Such early written work has, too, the advantage of easing the strain on the teacher as he tries to make the oral part of his lesson as interesting and lively as possible; it provides a variety in the English period that helps to hold pupils' interest.

For the teacher, there are two important things. As soon as possible, what he gives pupils to write should be meaningful to them, i.e., the pupil should write his name, his address, whole sentences—rather than individual letters and words. And he should take a genuine interest in helping his pupils to develop good handwriting. As with other aspects of English, praise by the teacher will help: we must try to develop in our pupils a pride in their handwriting and a conscience about poor work. Such well-known devices as the display to the class of good or improved work will be adopted by good teachers.

Reading

There are various methods of teaching reading. In the Campaign we use a combination of the Sentence Method and Look and Say. We also give some knowledge of phonics for children to draw upon when later faced with words they have not met before. (Flash cards are used in the teaching of the phonic sounds and of individual words taught by Look and Say.)

This combination is easy to handle. For example, the pupils are completely familiar with such sentences as 'This is a window' in their spoken form. The teacher writes such a sentence on the board or shows it already prepared on a strip of card, points to it and says, 'This is a window. This is a window. This is a window. Say it, Krishna (a bright pupil). . . . Say it, Gopal. . . . Say it, X. . . . This group say it. . . . This group say it. . . . Y, come out and point to "This is a window".' (This is the Sentence Method part of the lesson.)

Now the teacher points and says, 'This word says "this". This word says "window". This word says "a". This word says "is".' Or he shows four individual cards each with one of these words written on it. 'What does this word say?'—holding up 'window'. And so on. (This is the Look and Say part of the lesson.) The words we teach by Look and Say are chiefly those of an unphonetic nature, e.g., 'climb', 'laugh', or longer words such as 'people' or 'headmaster'.

Words like 'cat', 'dog', 'bag', 'pen', 'ink', 'pad', 'run', 'hop', 'jump'—and later 'ruler', 'smile', 'rubber', 'ball', 'hide'—can easily be 'sounded' by phonics. In the first ten months pupils are taught, at the rate of perhaps one a day—with revision by means of flash cards, each one bearing a letter (small, not capital)—the sounds the individual consonants make:

e.g. 'b' makes the sound [bə]
 'c' " " " [kə]
 'd' " " " [də]
 and so on;

as well as the short vowel sounds:

'a' makes the sound [a]—[æ] in Jones's *English Pronouncing Dictionary*

'e'	"	"	"	[e]—[e]	"	"	"
'i'	"	"	"	[i]			
'o'	"	"	"	[o]—[ɔ]	"	"	"
'u'	"	"	"	[ʌ]			

Pupils will look at 'bag' and say [bə] [a] [gə]
 then run the three sounds together and say [bag].
 (This is the phonics element in the lesson.)

Note: Even a limited knowledge of phonics will often help a child meeting a long word for the first time in a supplementary reader in a higher class. The context will give him *some* idea and phonics will often provide the key (e.g. with a word like 'crocodile' or 'elephant') even with words not completely phonetic in spelling.

When at the stage of teaching the sounds the individual letters make, the teacher may, if he so wishes, show children how the letters themselves are made. He will do this at the blackboard. For example, he shows the letter 'p' on a card and on the blackboard and teaches the sound it makes. Then he writes the letter slowly on the blackboard several times while the children watch. Then he invites children to go with chalk over the letters he has made and then write 'p' themselves, saying, as they do so: [pə], [pə], [pə].

The above is, of course, a bare outline of the way reading is started. The good teacher will rely on experience as well as this guidance. He will use different combinations of Sentence Method, Look and Say, and Phonics at different stages and with different circumstances and pupils.

There are many other things we should do too in teaching Standard V pupils to read English, e.g.:

1. Label objects in the classroom and at a later stage see if children can read the labels without the objects.

2. Draw on the blackboard pictures of objects with which the children have already become familiar through oral practice, and write the names of the objects alongside the pictures, not forgetting to include the article 'a', e.g. 'a table', 'a glass', 'a tree'. When the class can read the words by referring to the pictures, rub out the latter, leaving only the words. The pupils may be relying on their memories rather than on their ability to read the words; therefore, in a later lesson, the words alone should be written on the blackboard, and in a different order. The pupils should come to recognize and read these words in many situations, not only the one in which they were introduced. We must therefore seek out ways of revising words taught. Here flash cards and matching cards can be useful. In particular, the latter can be given to the more backward children, who may be allowed to 'play' with them while the others are doing other work. The teacher can put flash cards on the words taught, display each briefly to the class, and encourage the pupils to bring or point to the objects named.

3. Treat sentences in the same way as in 2.

4. Emphasize meaning at all stages, using sentences that are meaningful to the pupils. Checking comprehension can be done even at an early stage. For example, simple commands can be written on the blackboard or shown on the flannelboard ('Bring me a pencil,' 'Put up your hand,' 'Shut the door,' etc.) and comprehension indicated by the pupil's obeying. At a later stage when pupils are reading rhymes and verses or little stories, they can be shown these in the form of sentence cards arranged out of order on the flannelboard and be required to put them in the right order. Ordinary comprehension questions should be asked to check on the children's understanding of passages in the reader, but the teacher should take care that he does not in his questions use structures new to the children and that the answers to his questions can be given in structures already known.

5. Pay careful attention to stress, intonation, pauses and pronunciation in oral reading (including the reading of the reader). This is why in Primary and Secondary Courses we spend a lot of time on oral reading of the Standard V reader.

6. Let a lot of oral work, blackboard work and work with the flannelboard precede the reading of the various lessons in the reader. This is so that when pupils come to the reading of the actual lesson in the reader they will find it easy and thus gain and retain confidence.

7. Introduce silent reading for content as soon as possible. (Very intelligent children should not be kept in boredom while the teacher deals with elementary matters they already know. They should be encouraged in the third term to read outside the Standard V reader.)

Last, schools should throughout the whole course try so to arrange that the child finds books a natural and necessary part of life. The provision of picture books and scrap books, with or without reading matter, right from the beginning of the year is one way of stimulating an interest in learning to read.

Writing

When we introduce reading, we go back over the ground already covered orally. Similarly when we introduce writing, we ask the children to write only what they can already read. It may be desirable to repeat the process already described for reading, this time asking each pupil to draw the pictures and write the words in his own notebook. This could be the beginnings of the personal textbook recommended elsewhere. If the teaching of speaking and reading are thorough, writing should not prove difficult.

The pupil has to learn: (a) the mechanics of writing—the correct formation and spacing of letters; (b) to write what he already understands and can use in its oral form. These two approaches, once pupils have had two or three months of English, go hand in hand.

Work may start even in the first week of the English course so long as pupils do not tackle the writing of English sentences, words, or letters. In a thirty- or forty-minute period five or ten minutes can be spent on the sort of forms given in *Beacon Writing*, Book I and in David Horsburgh's *Italic Writing*, Book I. The pupil should, for this writing practice, keep a copy-book. This may be lined in order to guide his writing. The teacher can write model shapes and later letters, words and sentences in every book. (If he does, pupils might well start on the bottom line and work upwards, thus keeping the teacher's model in view, not their own, probably inferior, copy.) But to save time the teacher may write out on the blackboard each sentence to be copied. The class should always be given a good, clear model to copy.

The easiest way to save time on models is to use writing strips. The teacher writes out model sentences on cards approximately one inch high and the width of the copy-book. Then in each lesson, when time comes for writing, monitors quickly distribute forty to fifty cards (all different) and the children copy from these. In a month pupils will write out several dozen different sentences copied from different cards. The teacher, while the sentences are being copied from the cards, goes about the class helping his pupils. One of the big advantages of *Italic Writing*, Book I, is that it is specially prepared so that the pages can be cut up in writing strips. The work of the children must be supervised the whole time to see that they are doing the right things. Copying should be the basis of almost all work in Standard V. Teachers should have the writing collected at the end of each period and check and initial what has been done.

Towards the end of the first year, the order of the letters in the alphabet can be taught, as the children will need to consult dictionaries and other reference books in later years. By the end of the year they should be able to read simple English sentences from blackboard, card, and prescribed reader; they should also be able to copy or write such sentences in the script taught. The best readers should have got to the stage of tackling supplementary readers specially prepared in a very restricted vocabulary for first and second year learners of English.

Group Work in Standard V English

THE AIMS of group work are: (1) To give individual pupils more opportunity of expressing themselves in speech and writing than is possible in the open class. (N.B. The expression 'open class' will be used for the class not divided into groups.) (2) To enable the teacher to correct mistakes as soon as they are made. (3) To lessen the burden of correction, so that the teacher can give more written work and thus more practice. (4) To place more responsibility on the pupils for their work, and thus develop initiative, carefulness and co-operation. (5) To eradicate elementary mistakes by mutual correction within the groups.

Groups should contain not more than eight pupils. The brighter and the slower pupils should, as far as possible, be equally distributed among the groups. Where there is more than one bright boy in a group, leadership may be changed. The members of each group should get on well with one another. It is worth while taking a little trouble over the formation of the groups so as to ensure smooth working of them. On the introduction of group methods, it is advisable to drill the pupils in getting into groups quickly. Furniture is sometimes a problem; but if each pupil knows exactly which piece of furniture he has to move and where he has to put it, groups can be formed very quickly. They are formed most quickly when pupils sit on the floor; but this is not always possible.

The amount of group work given in any class depends upon the teacher. Each teacher must find the way that suits him and his class best.

It is necessary for individual work to be given as well as group work. When the teacher has experience in group work he will find ways of making opportunities for individual work within the groups.

General Procedure

The teacher must plan the group work carefully before going to class; otherwise time is wasted. If he is going to set different exercises for different groups these should be written out on different slips of paper.

1. *A Procedure for Written Exercises in the third term of Standard V:*

- (i) It is necessary for the teacher to supplement the reader with easy exercises. It should always be remembered that the purpose of exercises is to give the pupils practice in the correct form; an exercise is *not a test*. The teacher gives a different exercise to each group: simple answers to one, transformation of sentences to another, a vocabulary exercise to a third, and so on.

- (ii) The leader reads out the first question to his group, and asks one pupil for the answer. If the group is satisfied with the answer each pupil repeats it (i.e. each pupil practises speech). Then each pupil writes it.
- (iii) The teacher goes from group to group looking at the written work in the rough notebook of any boy in the group. If he finds a mistake he asks the group to correct it. If no one in the group can give the correct answer he does so himself, explaining it.
- (iv) As soon as a group has finished the exercise the teacher goes to it and corrects one of the books as suggested in (iii) above. The group leader and his assistant check the books of the other pupils.
- (v) The group exchanges exercises with another group and works that in the same way. Fair copies may be made of any exercise chosen by the teacher.

In an experienced class at least three exercises can be done by each group. If each exercise has five sentences and each pupil repeats every answer, he speaks fifteen sentences in a lesson, more than he is likely to speak in a whole month in the open class. There is therefore considerably more practice.

It has been objected that the pupils may repeat a wrong sentence and therefore practise errors. This may happen; but if the exercises have been well set, they should be within the capacity of the brighter pupils, who will see that mistakes are not made by the slower members of the group. Even if some errors are practised the disadvantage is offset by the amount of practice of correct forms, which is greater than that given in the open class, and it should be possible to drill in the correct forms before the period comes to an end.

2. *A Procedure for Oral Work. Drilling a Structure:*

- (i) The teacher demonstrates a new structure.
- (ii) He calls out the leaders and practises them in the structure in front of the class until he is reasonably certain that they can use it correctly. He then sends them to their groups to drill the latter.
- (iii) The leaders follow in their groups the procedures that the teacher used with them. The teacher goes from group to group helping the leaders. He will have discovered in stage (ii) above which leaders are most likely to need help.

If this can be done out-of-doors it is an advantage. The teacher can arrange the groups round himself and thus keep an eye on them.

Ten minutes should provide ample practice in groups. The teacher can then go on to the next structure. All the dull listening while the teacher asks pupil after pupil to repeat the structure is cut out. If there are six groups the time needed for adequate drilling is cut to one sixth.

Children are enthusiastic about group work. If the teacher varies his procedures, and sees that exercises are simple enough to provide practice in correct forms, the children will be happy to go on doing plenty of work. The amount of work produced from the children is much greater under these methods.¹

Group Composition

In the ordinary kind of composition work in the early years of learning English practically no help is given to the pupils by the teacher. The teacher sets a subject and expects the pupils to do the rest. Composition work in such circumstances puts too heavy a strain on them. It faces them with two major difficulties at one and the same time. They have to produce original material, which is difficult enough even when they are writing in their mother-tongue; and they have to struggle with the difficulties of a new language.

Composition work in English should aim at giving pupils practice in writing correct English. The teacher should help them to collect their thoughts on a given subject and then put them down on paper. Therefore composition work, at least in the early years of learning English, should always be guided. There should be no 'free' composition written in the first four years.

We can reduce the strain on our pupils and also get better results in a shorter time through guided composition *in groups*. If it is done individually even guided composition has disadvantages:

1. Individual composition leaves too much room for mistakes, with the result that the child produces a number of wrong sentences; he practises bad English instead of good English.
2. The teacher cannot mark the composition in the child's presence.
3. There are too many books to correct, which results in either bad correction or no correction at all.

What is recommended therefore is that composition work should be *guided* and should be *carried out in groups*. Group work in composition is also an opportunity for us to apply the principle of

¹ For the above, the Campaign expresses its thanks to Dr Jean Forrester and to the South India Teachers' Union, for whom she prepared the notes on which it is based.

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co-operation in language learning to writing. When pupils help each other they learn much faster and with less strain.

(*Note.* These methods can be used, with slight modifications, at all stages of English teaching; but in Standard V, group composition is better deferred until the last two months.)

1. The subject of the composition is chosen. In the first weeks of composition work the teacher should choose it, but thereafter the children should be encouraged to make suggestions. Wall pictures are extremely useful as a basis for such compositions. If the school has no wall pictures, the teacher can draw three or four pictures on the blackboard to illustrate a story, which can form a basis for the composition.

2. The subject is put on the board and discussed by the whole class. The teacher puts the sentences on the board and gradually the composition is built up. All work by the pupils has so far been oral.

3. The teacher gets the class to read the composition on the board, and then wipes it off.

4. The groups go back to their places and the same process starts again. One boy is appointed writer, and the group produces a rough composition after discussing each sentence. The first attempts will probably be very much like the one produced on the blackboard, but more original efforts should appear when children have had some practice.

5. When the rough composition is ready the teacher comes to the group and discusses it with them. He corrects mistakes and perhaps suggests minor alterations.

6. Each member of the group then makes a fair copy in his own notebook.

7. The only marking the teacher has to do is the composition in each group, which he does when he discusses it with them.

The advantages of such compositions are obvious:

1. Most of the disadvantages of the usual type of individual composition are cut out.

2. The joint efforts of the group usually produce a better and more correct composition than that which could be produced by any of the individuals in it and so there is greater pride, enthusiasm and satisfaction in the work.

3. The group stands or falls by the work of all, and this is also an incentive to work well together as a team.

A sample of elementary composition work which can be done in the last two months of Standard V is given below:

Put a picture of a cat on your flannelboard and invite pupils to speak about it. If they hesitate, encourage them by asking questions like:

- Have you a cat at home?
- Is a cat an animal?
- How many eyes has a cat?
- What colour are its eyes?
- How many tails has a cat?
- Does a cat like fish?
- Does a cat like milk?
- Does a cat climb trees?
- Does it play?

So a draft composition emerges from the pupils' answers:

A cat is an animal. It has four legs, two ears and two eyes. Its eyes are green. It has only one tail. A cat likes fish and milk. It climbs trees. It plays with other cats.

More Oral Group Work: Chorus Drills

We learn to speak correctly by speaking correctly. For fluency combined with accuracy we use drills.

It is easy to ensure that every child speaks English in every lesson, even in a class of 40 or 50. We cannot rely on questions to and answers by individual children. (Forty minutes divided among forty children allows one minute per child—which will not do!) We rely on chorus drills. Here is an example:

The teacher puts the question orally to himself, 'When do I come to school?' and gives the answer to his own question, 'I come to school at half past nine.' He repeats this several times, using a clock and pointing to the hands, which show half past nine. Then he asks the class, 'When do you come to school?' To answer he calls upon Raman, a very bright boy, 'Raman, when do you come to school?' Raman knows the answer. 'I come to school at half past nine.' Two or three other bright boys are asked and each gives the correct answer, 'I come to school at half past nine.'

But this takes time and only a few pupils are speaking; so the teacher changes to a chorus drill. He points to two boys together and asks the question. They reply together. Then he asks a whole row and then other rows, passing from one to the other quickly. He does not always have to ask the question. Sometimes he simply points and says, 'This row. . . ' 'This row. . . ' In a very short time half the children in the class will have spoken the sentence, 'I come to school at half past nine.'

We must remember, however, that (a) good discipline and an alert class are needed—a good teacher's class is usually alert; (b)

only small groups of, say, six to ten should speak in chorus; (c) the groups should speak quietly (otherwise the headmaster and other teachers will complain of noise and interference); (d) the teacher must give a good model, speaking clearly but at normal speed with the proper intonation; and he must listen carefully to make sure the pupils utter the words correctly (if groups are too big he may not be able to hear mistakes); (e) drills must not lead to merely mechanical replies; meaning must not be neglected. To ensure statements are not repeated merely mechanically we may alter certain content words, e.g., 'The book/ball/cup is under the table' (depending on what changes of object the teacher is making for the various groups) or certain structural words, 'The ball is under/on/beside the table' (according to the position to which the teacher has changed the object for the next two or three groups).

Action Chains

It is by means of action chains that we most easily start connected speech in English. The teacher walks to the blackboard and as he does so says: 'I am walking to the blackboard.' Then he goes on: 'I am cleaning it. I am drawing a picture' (doing the actions as he utters the words). Then he gets pupils to copy what he has done and said.

For the first person plural he can get a group of, say, three pupils to perform the actions and as they do so say, 'We are walking to the window. We ...', and so on. For the third person singular he can get one boy to do the actions and have another boy look at the class while pointing to the first and say: 'He is walking to the blackboard. He is ...'. For the third person plural one boy describes what a group of three boys is doing. 'They are walking to the blackboard. They are....'

With a good class a whole row of pupils can describe in chorus what one of their fellow pupils is doing. 'He is walking to ...' and so on.

Pupils can act imaginary activities. For example, 'I am going to my garden. I am working in my garden. Now I am sitting on the ground. Now I am running to my house.'

Or, a little more advanced:

'It is nine o'clock (pointing to the clock set at this time). I am drinking coffee. This is a broom. Now I am sweeping the floor.'

'I am putting this food on the table. I am giving Rani this plantain. I am giving Gita a cake. I am drinking coffee. Rani and Gita are eating bread.'

Teachers will be able to think of many others.

We should remember:

(i) to perform, or have performed, appropriate actions while the words are spoken;

(ii) not to use the simple present tense in action chains; (To an Englishman, 'I stand up. I walk to the door. I open it...' sounds like conjuror's talk.)

(iii) not to introduce a series only once; (We should drill what we introduce until pupils have added something permanently to their English.)

(iv) to keep examples within the child's experience.

The Campaign Script

Good and Bad Handwriting

Most teachers of English do not consciously teach handwriting; if they do, such teaching continues for only a year or so after the child starts learning English.

Teachers who have had the labour of correcting examination papers at any level must be fully aware of the poor quality of the handwriting of the majority of school pupils and college students today. This must be counteracted by constant supervision and teaching of handwriting; and this means that the teacher himself must be able to write legibly both on paper and on the blackboard. Good fast handwriting takes a number of years to form and the English teacher will have to teach writing for several years after the child has started to learn English.

What kind of Handwriting should we teach our Children?

The essentials of a handwriting suitable for teaching to children are: (i) legibility, (ii) speed, and (iii) beauty. These essentials are listed in order of importance.

Obviously to put speed before legibility is quite wrong. Illegibility in any handwriting, no matter how speedily written, renders it useless as a means of communication; if nobody can read what is written, then writing it has clearly been a waste of time. Speed is often the enemy of legibility, and children often write badly because teachers do not give them enough time to write well.

Handwriting should be easily legible, and should be capable of being written at speed. If we are going to give children, at an

The Campaign Script

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impressionable age, a tool such as handwriting, which they are going to use regularly for the rest of their lives, we must be careful to see that we give them a tool worth using, something that they can delight in whenever they put pen to paper.

In this Campaign we have adopted what is now known as the Campaign script, which is shown in Figures 2 and 3 below. It is one of the duties of all involved in the Campaign to become proficient in writing this script and to see that the children in their schools also become proficient.

FIGURE 1 *Writing patterns:-* *uuuu mmm*
iiiii ooooo agag ititit ququ

FIGURE 2 *abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz*
ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ
OPQRSTUVWXYZ 123456789

FIGURE 3 *Cursive Letters:-* *abcdefghijklmn*
opqrstuvwxyz *Note:- f k q y Joins:-*
ab ac ad ae ag ai aj al an ap ar as av
ay ca ce ch ci ck co cr ct cu cy da
de dg do du dy ea ec ed em et eu etc.

Teaching Handwriting

Although the syllabus quite rightly demands only oral work in the first weeks of English teaching, a useful start to the business of teaching writing is to allow the child to start with writing-patterns. Remember that the purpose of these writing-patterns (see Figure 1) is to allow the child to acquire movements of the hand which will help his English writing and which have not necessarily been acquired in his learning of the Tamil script. For this purpose the teacher can either give the children individual writing-strips or let them copy from the blackboard into their notebooks. It is important

to remember that in the first six weeks or so the teacher should not tell the child what the letters are; even though the writing-pattern may consist of *ad/ad/ad* etc., the child should regard it purely as a pattern exercise and on no account should he be told *this is / ei /*, *this is / di /*. Another advantage of using writing patterns at an early stage is that constant oral work for the whole class is a great strain on the teacher (and quite often on the child too) and writing-patterns give them a pleasant break. It is also useful to be able to ask one or two groups to write from writing-strips while other groups are given special attention.

It is important in the early stages of using writing-patterns, and in the first attempts at individual letters, to ensure that the child writes the letters correctly; bad writing in later years can often be attributed to wrong teaching in the early stages.

Towards the end of the year the minor changes shown in Figure 3 can be introduced to the children and they can be given simple joins which will lead them slowly to a fully cursive hand. Some of the joins required are shown in Figure 3.

Practical Work

The most important practical work on the course is regular handwriting practice. Each member of the course should be expected to produce at least a page of handwriting a day, and a few lines on the blackboard. Writing-strips should be used and there should be close supervision at every stage by the teachers of individual groups.

A sound knowledge of the Campaign script is clearly linked up with the making of flash cards, matching cards and other written aids; needless to say, nothing should be produced, on either Primary Courses or Secondary Courses, which is not written in the Campaign Script.

If teachers have time they can be asked to make a chart for their classroom showing the ways of making individual letters.

Some Simple Aids

Daily Aids

Apart from aids to teaching specific structures, vocabulary and lessons, there are several simple aids which can be kept in the classroom, and these provide an opportunity for much incidental practice in the use of the language. Teachers can choose from the following:

1. *Calendar*. This can be changed every day and will give practice in the numerals and in the names of days and months. In this way the pattern, 'Yesterday was . . . ; today is . . .' can probably be introduced long before its place in the structure list.

Don't use the ordinary printed calendar in your Fifth Standard classroom; it will be better if you make one of your own. Use cardboard and paper, like this:

<p>TODAY IS TUESDAY, FEBRUARY 15</p>

Letters at least $1\frac{1}{2}$ " high; TODAY IS $2\frac{1}{2}$ " high

A month later you can make a similar one which reads YESTERDAY WAS, so that children can get an idea of the meaning of the past tense.

2. *Weather Chart*. There are several ways of illustrating the condition of the weather, so giving continuous practice in the pattern, 'Today it is raining' (sunny, cloudy, cool, windy, etc.). One way is to prepare cards with sentences written on them like these:

TODAY IT IS RAINING
TODAY IT IS HOT
TODAY IT IS WINDY
TODAY IT IS NOT VERY HOT
TODAY IT IS CLOUDY

Suitable pictures, illustrating these statements, (e.g. a man with an umbrella, a girl with her sari flapping in the breeze) can be made. The correct statement and corresponding picture can be pinned up by the children every day. Pictures can be illustrations cut from newspapers or magazines, paintings or drawings done by the children, or ink-sketches done by you.

Alternatively, such pictures can be placed round a circular piece of cardboard, with a clock-pointer which can be altered according to the weather.

A weather-graph can be constructed daily, based on the readings of the nearest weather station, usually published in the daily paper.

3. *A clock* is very useful, or failing this a cardboard model with movable hands which pupils can be called upon to alter so as to indicate particular times in the daily programme (e.g. opening and closing times, lesson periods, midday meal, evening sports programme, etc.).

4. *Class Statistics* (e.g. date, number of children present) are too often kept by the teacher alone, so neglecting a useful opportunity for speech practice. They are best done on the blackboard; but let one of the class change the figures every day and announce the attendance to the whole class.

5. *Time Charts*. These are valuable towards the end of the first year of English as an introduction to past and future tenses. Daily duties can be given to some pupils and a permanent chart drawn up, changing only the names of the pupils when necessary.

Make a board, leaving ample space for children to pin on a piece of paper with the name written on it (preferably by themselves).

X is cleaning the board	X cleaned the board	X cleans the board
Y is ringing the bell	Y rang the bell	Y rings the bell
Z is changing the chart	Z changed the chart	Z changes the chart
NOW	YESTERDAY	EVERY DAY

Names and jobs could be changed once a week, so that pupils may come to see the pattern of the verb change because it affects their personal movements.

6. *Advertisements*. Careful search in newspapers and magazines will produce advertisements and occasional headlines using structures which are being taught. You will have to make your own collection. Keep them in a folder or old file cover, together with appropriate descriptions written boldly in large letters. Children can be asked to help in building up a class collection, and to arrange a display on the notice-board which can be changed every day.

7. *Common Objects*. Not enough use is made, in teaching English, of the many familiar objects *outside* the classroom. Very often, when a teacher collects objects on which to base his teaching, he chooses things which a boy or girl would normally bring to school—a box, a bag, a book.

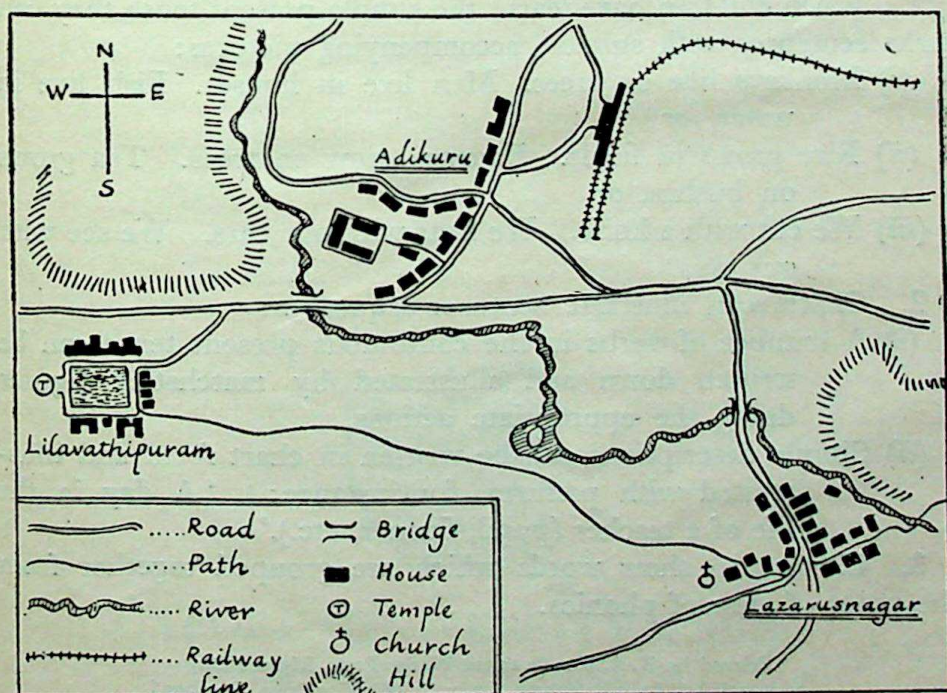
Some Simple Aids

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It is much cheaper and simpler to bring in objects than to make models of them. Their usefulness does not cease when their names are known; a set can be brought back to the classroom for the teaching of colours, for instance. A number of objects which have obvious functions (e.g. knives for cutting, spades for digging, etc.) make good visual aids for the teaching of the present continuous tense.

It is usually advisable to bring in objects according to families, to help the pupil link them in his mind. Here are a few suggested families: Common fruits, vegetables; Objects with obvious functions—knife, spade, comb, watch, cup. Detailed objects capable of simple description—bicycle, typewriter, radio; Household objects from home—pots, pans, tumblers; Toys, as a basis for describable actions—toy models, dolls; Objects capable of change in shape, size, volume, etc.—balloons, glasses of water, plasticine, clay; Vocabulary-builders—games equipment, items of stationery, varieties of food.

8. *Maps* are extremely useful as visual aids in teaching language but it should be stressed that they are not essential and teachers should make quite sure that they can use the *essential* visual aids (the blackboard, flash cards, etc.) before they think of using any of the aids in this article. When teaching the points of the compass, a wall map of India would be the obvious visual aid to choose. Other maps, however, made by the teacher or the children can be of considerable use in language teaching for quite a variety of purposes. Apart from using a map of a whole country one can



frequently make use of maps of the taluk or the district, of the town or the village. Plans of the school and the classroom are also useful.

With a map like the one shown on p. 127 the following sentences can be practised:

'What is the name of this town? What river is this? Where is your school (the bridge, your house, etc.)? Which is the biggest village? How many roads (villages, hills, rivers) are there? Where is ...? Which village has a tank (river, temple)?'

These again are only samples. The map can also be used for practising the general present tense and for the natural introduction of new vocabulary, for example: This village is. . . . We live here. This road goes from. . . . Which road crosses the river near our school? The river turns south near Lazarusnagar. The road crosses the river near Adikuru. The railway comes to Adikuru but it doesn't come to Lilavathipuram. Is there a church in Lazarusnagar?

Pupils can be asked to give directions to a second person and practise the important forms of the verbs thus: 'Go to the railway station from the school. Go up the road to Lazarusnagar. Go down the street to the right. Where is the church, on your right or on your left?'

In some cases it is possible to work in the reverse way, giving a description to a pupil and asking him to draw a map accordingly.

Charts

The chief purpose of charts is to summarize knowledge on particular language points:

1. When children have learnt the simple present tense they can make sentences with suitable accompanying pictures:

- (i) Monkeys live on trees. Men live in houses. Fish live in water, *or*
- (ii) Rice grows in fields. Bananas grow on trees. Tea grows on bushes, *or*
- (iii) We cut with a knife. We hear with our ears. We see with our eyes.

2. Charts can illustrate sentence-sequences:

- (i) A number of verbs in the continuous present tense can be written down and illustrated by matchstick figures doing the appropriate actions.
- (ii) Simple descriptions can be written in chart form and illustrated with pictures, for instance: 'A day in the life of a teacher (pupil, farmer, etc.).'

3. Charts can show words which are grouped together from the point of view of phonics.

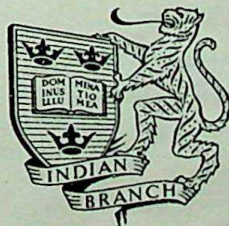
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